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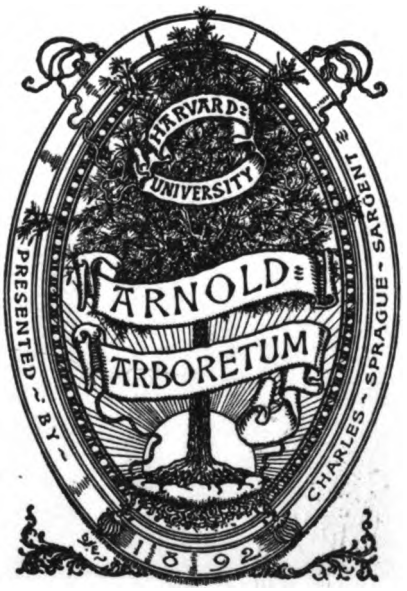

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TRAVELS

INTO THE

INTERIOR OF SOUTHERN AFRICA.

VOL. II.

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TRAVELS

INTO THE

INTERIOR OF SOUTHERN AFRICA.

IN WHICH ARE DESCRIBED

THE CHARACTER AND THE CONDITION OF THE DUTCH COLONISTS

OF

THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE,

AND OF THE SEVERAL TRIBES OF NATIVES BEYOND ITS LIMITS:

THE NATURAL HISTORY OF SUCH SUBJECTS AS OCCURRED IN THE ANIMAL, MINERAL, AND VEGETABLE KINGDOMS;
AND THE GEOGRAPHY OF THE SOUTHERN EXTREMITY OF AFRICA.

COMPREHENDING ALSO

A TOPOGRAPHICAL AND STATISTICAL SKETCH OF THE CAPE COLONY:
WITH AN INQUIRY INTO ITS IMPORTANCE AS A NAVAL AND MILITARY STATION
AS A COMMERCIAL EMPORIUM; AND AS A TERRITORIAL POSSESSION.

BY JOHN BARROW, ESQ. F.R.S.
AUTHOR OF "TRAVELS IN CHINA."

"*Africa semper aliquid novi offert.*"

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. II.

THE SECOND EDITION, WITH ADDITIONS AND ALTERATIONS.

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TRAVELS

IN

SOUTHERN AFRICA.

CHAP. I.

Statistical Sketch of the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

If from the southern point of the Cape peninsula, which, however, is not the southernmost point of Africa, a straight line be drawn in the direction of east by north, it will cut the mouth of the Great Fish River, the *Rio d' Infantè* of the Portuguese, which is now considered as the eastern boundary of the colony. The length of this line is about five hundred and eighty miles.

If from the same point a straight line be drawn in the direction of north, with a little inclination westerly, it will fall in with the mouth of the River *Koussie*, the northern boundary of the colony, at the distance of about three hundred and fifteen miles from that point.

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And, if from the mouth of the Great Fish River a line be drawn in the direction of north-north-west, to the distance of two hundred and twenty-five miles, to a point behind the Snowy mountains called *Plettenberg's Landmark;* and from thence be continued in a circular sweep inwards to the mouth of the River *Koussie*, upwards of five hundred miles; these lines will circumscribe the tract of country which constitutes the colony of the Cape of Good Hope.

By reducing this irregular figure to a parallelogram, it will be found to comprehend an area of at least one hundred and twenty thousand square miles. And as it appears that the whole population of whites, blacks, and Hottentots, within this area, amounts only to about sixty thousand souls, though it cannot boast that

"Every rood of ground maintains its man,"

yet every two square miles may be said to have at least *one* human creature allotted to it. If, therefore, the Dutch at home occupy one of the most populous countries in Europe, they possess abroad the most desert colony that is certainly to be met with upon the face of the globe. But as this is less owing to the natural defects of the country, than to the regulations under which it has been governed, the comparative population with the extent of surface ought not to be taken as the test of the intrinsic value of the settlement, as the population of any country, under a moderate climate, will, in the natural course of things, always rise to a level with the means of subsistence. A very great portion, however, of this

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settlement may be considered as an unprofitable waste, unfit for any sort of culture, or even to be employed as pasture for the support of cattle. Level plains, consisting of a hard impenetrable surface of clay, thinly sprinkled over with crystallized sand, condemned to perpetual drought, and producing only a few straggling tufts of acrid, saline, and succulent plants, and chains of vast mountains that are either totally naked, or clothed in parts with sour grasses only, or such plants as are noxious to animal life, compose at least one half of the colony of the Cape. These chains of mountains and the interjacent plains are extended generally in the direction of east and west, except indeed that particular range which, beginning at False Bay, opposite to the Cape Point, stretches to the northward along the western coast as far as the mouth of Olifant's river, which is about 210 miles.

The first great chain of mountains that runs east and west encloses, between it and the southern coast, an irregular belt of land from twenty to sixty miles in width, indented by several bays, covered with a deep and fertile soil, intersected by numerous streamlets, well clothed with grass and small arboreous or frutescent plants, well wooded in many parts with forest-trees, supplied with frequent rains, and enjoying, on account of its proximity to the sea, a more mild and equable temperature than the more remote and interior parts of the colony.

The next great chain is the Zwarte Berg or Black Mountain. This is considerably more lofty and rugged than the first, and

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consists in many places of double and sometimes treble ranges. The belt enclosed between it and the first chain is about the mean width of that between the first and the sea; of a surface very varied, composed in some parts of barren hills, in others of naked arid plains of clay, known to the natives, and also to the colonists, by the name of *Karoo*; and in others of choice patches of well watered and fertile grounds. The general surface of this belt has a considerable elevation above that of the first; the temperature is less uniform; and from the nature of the soil, as well as the difficulty of access over the mountains, which are passable only in few places, this district may be considered as much less valuable than the other.

The third range of mountains is the Nieuwveldt's Gebergte, which, with the second, grasps the Great Karroo or arid desert, which is uninhabited by a human creature. This desert, making the third step or terrace of Southern Africa, is greatly elevated above the second; is near 300 miles in length from east to west, and eighty in breadth; is scarcely ever moistened by a shower of rain; exhibits a surface of clay, thinly sprinkled over with sand, out of which a few shrivelled and parched plants here and there meet the eye, faintly extending their half withered fibres along the ground, and struggling, as it were, to preserve their existence against the excessive heat of one season of the year and the severe frosts of the other.

The country likewise ascends from the western coast towards the interior in successive terraces, of which the most elevated, called the Roggeveld, falls in with the last-mentioned chain of mountains, the Nieuwveldt. The whole tract of country to

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the northward is much more sandy, barren, and thinly inhabited, than to the eastward, in which direction it seems to increase in beauty and fertility with the distance from the Cape.

None of the mountains of the Cape settlement possess much of the sublime or the beautiful, but the approach to the bases in some parts, and the entrance of the Kloofs, are awfully grand and terrific; sometimes their naked points of solid rock rise almost perpendicularly, like a wall of masonry, to the height of three, four, and even five thousand feet, generally in the same form as the Table Mountain on the Cape peninsula; sometimes the inclination of the strata is so great that the whole mass of mountain appears to have its centre of gravity falling without the base, and as if it momentarily threatened to strew the plain with its venerable ruins; in other places where the lower fragments have given way, they are irregularly peaked and broken into a variety of fantastic shapes. Such is the general outline of the territory that is comprehended under the name of the Cape of Good Hope.

As the best soil for vegetable growth is unquestionably produced from a decomposition of vegetable matter, it amounts to a pleonasm to say, that the richest soil will invariably be found where vegetation is most abundant and most luxuriant; the soil and the plant acting reciprocally as cause and effect. Hence, if climate were entirely out of the question, we should have an infallible criterion for determining the quality of soil in any country by the abundance or scarcity, the luxuriance or poverty, of the native plants. Measuring the soil of the

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Cape settlement by this scale, it would be pronounced among the poorest in the known world; for I may safely venture to say, that seven parts in ten of the above mentioned surface are, for the greater part of the year, and some of them at all times, destitute of the least appearance of verdure. The upper regions of all the chains of mountains are naked masses of sandstone; the valleys at their feet are clothed with grass, with thickets, and sometimes with impenetrable forests. The inferior hills or knolls, whose surfaces are generally composed of loose fragments of sandstone, as well as the wide sandy plains that connect them, are thinly strewed over with heaths and other shrubby plants, exhibiting to the eye an uniform and dreary appearance. In the lowest parts of these plains, where the waters subside and, filtering through the sand, break out in springs upon the surface, vegetation is somewhat more luxuriant. In such situations the farm-houses are generally placed; and the patches of cultivated ground contiguous to them, like the *Oases* in the sandy deserts, may be considered as so many verdant islands in the midst of a boundless waste; serving to make the surrounding wilderness more dreary by comparison. Of such plains and knolls is the belt of land composed that lies between the first chain of mountains and the sea-coasts.

The soils, in general, on this tract of country, are either of stiff clay, into which there is no possibility of entering with a plough till well soaked by heavy rains, or of a light and sandy nature, commonly of a reddish tinge, and abounding with small round quartzose pebbles. Seldom any free black vegetable mould appears, except in the small patches of garden ground,

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vineyards, and orchards, that surround the habitations, where long culture, manure, and the fertilizing influence of springs, or a permanent rill of water, have so far mellowed the soil as to admit the spade at all seasons of the year.

But those vast plains, which are known in the colony by the Hottentot name of *Karroo*, and which are interposed between the great chains of mountains, wear a still more dismal appearance than the lower plains that are chequered with patches of cultivated ground. Out of their impenetrable surfaces of clay, glistering with small crystals of quartz, and condemned to perpetual drought and aridity, not a blade of grass, and scarcely a verdant twig, occurs to break the barren uniformity. The hills, by which the surface of these plains is sometimes broken, are chiefly composed of fragments of blue slate, or masses of felt-spar, and argillaceous ironstone; and the surfaces of these are equally denuded of plants as those of the plains.

Yet, as I have already observed, wherever the Karroo plains are tinged with iron, and where water can be brought upon them, the soil is found to be extremely productive. The same effect is observable in the neighbourhood of the Cape, where the soil is coloured with iron; or when masses of a brown ochraceous stone (the oxyd of iron combined with clay) lie just below the surface, where they are sometimes found in extensive strata. In such situations the best grapes, and the best of every sort of fruit are produced; which may be owing, probably, to the manganese that this kind of dark brown ironstone generally contains, and which modern discoveries in che-

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mistry have ascertained to be particularly favourable to the health and vigour of plants.

There is neither a volcano nor a volcanic product in the southern extremity of Africa, at least in any of those parts where I have been, nor any substances that seem to have undergone the action of fire, except masses of iron-stone found generally among the boggy earth in the neighbourhood of some of the hot springs, and which appear like the scoriæ of furnaces. Pieces of pumice-stone have been picked up on the shore of Robben Island, and on the coast near Algoa Bay, which must have been wafted thither by the waves, as the whole basis of this island is a hard and compact blue schistus, with veins of quartz running through it, and that of the eastern coast iron-stone and granite.

The climate of the Cape may be considered as not unfriendly to vegetation; but by reason of its situation, within the influence of a kind of Monsoon or periodical winds, the rains are very unequal, descending in torrents during the cold season, whilst scarcely a shower falls to refresh the earth in the hot summer months, when the dry south-east winds prevail. These winds blast the foliage, blossom, and fruit, of all those trees that are not well sheltered from their baneful gusts, which, for about six months, almost constantly blow from that quarter. Nor is the human constitution better protected against the painful sensation of the south-east winds of the Cape than the plants. Like the south-east Sirocco of Naples they relax and fatigue both the body and mind, rendering them utterly incapable of activity or energy. During their

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continuance the town appears to be deserted. Every door and window is closed to keep out the dust and the heat, both of which diminish with the continuance of the gale; the air gradually cools, and every small pebble and particle of dust in the course of four-and-twenty hours is carried into the sea.

The necessity of protecting the fruit groves, vineyards, and gardens from these winds, has led those colonists who dwell on the nearer side of the first chain of mountains, for they are not much felt beyond them, to divide that portion of their grounds, so employed, by oak skreens, a plant that grows here much more rapidly than in Europe; but their corn-lands are entirely open. A Cape boor bestows no more labor on his farm than is unavoidable; and as grain is mostly reaped before the south-east winds are fairly set in, the enclosure of the arable land did not appear to be necessary, and was consequently omitted.

The climate of the Cape is remarkably affected by local circumstances. In the summer months there are at least from 6 to 10 degrees of Fahrenheit's scale in the difference of temperature between Cape Town and Wynberg, whose distance is only about seven or eight miles, owing to the latter being on the windward side of the Table Mountain, and the former to leeward of it; from whence, also, the rays of the meridian sun are thrown back upon the town, as from the surface of a concave mirror. The variation of climate, to which the Table Valley is subject, led one of the British officers to observe that those who lived in it were either in an oven, or at the

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funnel of a pair of bellows, or under a water-spout. On the Cape side of the mountains the thermometer rarely descends below 40°; but on the elevated Karroo plains, within the mountains, it is generally, in the winter months, below the freezing point by night, and from 70 to 80 in the middle of the day.

I think this intense cold of the Karroo plains, beyond what might be expected from their parallel of latitude or elevation, may satisfactorily be accounted for from the ingenious experiments of Mr. Von Humboldt, on the chemical decomposition of the atmospherical air. He proves that fat and clayey earths are strongly disposed to attract the oxygen from the atmosphere, by which the azotic gas is let loose; and this gas, entering again into combination with the fresh oxygen of the superincumbent stratum, in an increased proportion, forms nitric acid, from which saltpetre is generated. That saltpetre is abundantly formed on those plains is an indisputable fact, as I have fully shewn in the first chapter of the first volume; and the consequence of such formation must necessarily be a great diminution of temperature in those places where the operation is most powerfully carrying on. Hence perhaps may be explained those columns of cold air through which one frequently passes upon the Karroo plains.

The north-west winds of winter have a moist and cold feel even in Cape Town, where, though the thermometer seldom descends below 40°, and then only about an hour before sunrise, all the English inhabitants were glad to keep constant

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fires during the months of July, August, and September. Even in October it is not unusual to observe the summits of the mountains to the eastward of the Cape isthmus buried in snow.

Though it has been usual to consider the year at the Cape as consisting of two periods, called the good and the bad monsoon, yet, as these are neither regular in their returns, nor certain in their continuance, the division into four seasons, as in Europe, would appear to be much more proper. The spring, reckoned from the beginning of September to that of December, is the most agreeable season. The summer, from December to March, is the hottest. The autumn, from March to June, is variable weather, generally fine, and the latter part very pleasant. And the winter, from June to September, though in general pleasant, is frequently very stormy, rainy, and cold. The two most powerful winds are the north-west and south-east. The first generally commences towards the end of May, and blows occasionally till the end of August, and sometimes through the month of September. The south-east predominates the rest of the year, and, when the cloud shews itself on the mountain, blows in squalls with great violence. In the midst of one of these storms the appearance of the heavenly bodies, as observed by the Abbé de la Caille, is strange and terrible: "The stars look larger, and "seem to dance; the moon has an undulating tremor; and "the planets have a sort of beard like comets." Effects such as these are not confined to the Cape alone, but are, in many parts of the world, among the terrifick accompaniments of a storm, and are probably occasioned by looking at the objects

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through a medium that is loaded with vapor, and moving along with great velocity.

The approach of winter is first observed by the south-east winds becoming less frequent, less violent, and blowing *clear*, or without the fleecy cloud upon the mountain. Dews then begin to fall very heavy, and thick fogs hang in the mornings about the hills. The north-west winds feel raw and cold, and increase at length to a storm, with heavy rain, thunder, and lightning, continuing generally for two or three days. When the weather brightens up, the mountains on the continent appear with their tops buried in snow: the Table has also a sprinkling of snow or hail about the summit. At such times the thermometer, about sun-rise, stands in the town at 40°, and will probably ascend, towards the middle of the day, to 70°, making a variation in temperature of 30 degrees in the course of five or six hours. The general standard, however, for the three winter months may be reckoned from 50° at sun-rise to 60° at noon; and in the very middle of summer it varies from 70° to 90°, but generally rests for days together at 83° or 84°. It has been known to exceed 100° in Cape Town; but instances of so high a degree of temperature have been very rare. The heat of summer is seldom oppressive. The mornings are sometimes close and sultry, but the nights are always cool. The south-east breeze usually springs up towards the middle of the day, and dies away in the evening. When these winds blow with violence, and the cloud appears on the mountain, their greatest strength is when the sun has passed the meridian

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about 30 degrees, and they continue in squalls till mid-night. From November to April a shower of rain scarcely ever falls.

The barometer stands higher in the clear cold days of winter than in the settled serene weather of summer. The height of the column of mercury varies, in the former season, from 29.46' to 30.35 inches, one point indicating a storm with rain, thunder, and lightning; and the other, settled fair weather. The changeable point is about 29.95 or 30 inches. The greatest range being only 89 hundred parts of an inch, the slightest alteration in the state of the barometer is sure to indicate a change of weather. The range of the mercury, in the summer season, is still less, being scarcely ever above 30.10, or below 29.74 inches. The south-east gales of wind seldom occasion a change of more than 15 hundred parts of an inch. Happy for the inhabitants of Cape Town that by these winds a constant circulation of the air is kept up during the summer months, without which, notwithstanding the languor they occasion, the reflected heat from the naked front of the Table mountain would make the town insupportable.

Most of the fatal diseases that prevail among the natives would appear to proceed rather from their habits of life than from any real unhealthiness in the climate. Nothing could afford a stronger proof of this conclusion than the circumstance of there not having been one sick man in the general military hospital for several months, and not more than a hundred in the regimental hospitals out of five thousand troops;

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and these, according to the reports of the surgeons, were complaints generally brought on by too free an use of the wines and spirituous liquors of the country, of which their pay enabled them to procure an excess. The sudden change of temperature, especially from heat to cold, may perhaps be one of the causes of consumptive complaints which are very frequent in all classes and ages. But the common disease to which those of the middle age are subject, is the dropsy. A confined and sedentary life; eating to excess, twice and commonly thrice a-day, of animal food swimming in fat, or made up into high-seasoned dishes; drinking raw ardent spirits; smoking tobacco; and, when satiated with indulging the sensual appetite, retiring in the middle of the day to sleep; seldom using any kind of exercise, and never such as might require bodily exertion,—are the usual habits in which a native of the Cape is educated. An apoplexy or a schirrous liver are the consequences of such intemperance. The former is seldom attended with immediate dissolution on account of the languid state of the constitution; but it generally terminates in a dropsy, which shortly proves fatal. The diseases to which children are most subject are eruptions of different kinds, and sore throats. Neither the small-pox nor the measles are endemic; the former has made its appearance but twice or thrice since the establishment of the Colony, but the latter has found its way much more frequently. Great caution has always been used by the government against their being introduced by foreign ships calling at the Cape. Instances of longevity are very rare, few exceeding the period of sixty years. The mortality in Cape Town, taken on the average in the last eight years, has been about two and a

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half in a hundred among the white inhabitants, and under three in a hundred among the slaves. Those in the latter condition, who live in the town, are in general well fed, well clothed, not much exposed to the weather, nor put to hard labor. Others in the country, whose principal food consists of black sandy bread, and the offals of butchers' meat, who labor from morning to night in the field, and those also who follow the arduous and daily task of gathering wood on the exposed sides of the mountains, or in the hot sands, are subject to bilious fevers of which they seldom recover.

The scarcity of water in summer is much more unfavorable to an extended cultivation than either the soil or climate. The torrents of rain that descend for about four months in the year, deluging the whole country, disappear suddenly, leaving the deep sunken beds of the rivers nearly dry, or so far exhausted as to be rendered incapable of supplying the purposes of irrigation. The periodical rivulets, and the streams that issue from the mountain springs, are either absorbed or evaporated before they arrive at any great distance from their sources. In the whole compass of this extensive colony, one can scarcely say that there is a single navigable river. The beds indeed of all the rivers in the colony are sunk, in a remarkable manner, to a very great depth below the general surface of the country; so that whenever the heavy rains descend, the waters subside into these deep channels, which, on account of their narrowness, almost instantaneously become filled to the very brink. The impetuosity with which such torrents rush towards the sea is irresistible.

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Whether the deep excavations, that form the beds of these rivers, may be satisfactorily explained by supposing the texture of the adjacent materials to have been of a loose and incoherent nature; or, whether a greater antiquity than to many parts of the globe may not be assigned to the continent of South Africa, on the whole surface of which there appears to be a remarkable similarity, is a question on the merits of which one would hesitate to give a prompt decision. But, on comparing the great quantity of rain that annually falls at the Cape, a quantity far exceeding that in most parts of Europe, with the general scarcity of springs, the invention is naturally exercised in endeavouring to account for a phenomenon so unusual. The following observations may perhaps assist in explaining it.

All the continued chains of mountains in Southern Africa are composed of sandstone resting upon a base of granite. This granite base is sometimes elevated considerably above the general surface of the country, and sometimes its upper part is sunk as far beneath it. In situations where the former happens to be the case, numerous springs are sure to be found, as in the instance of Table mountain, where, on every side, copious streams of pure limpid water, filtered through the immense mass of superincumbent sandstone, glide over the impenetrable surface of granite, furnishing an ample supply to the whole town, the gardens, and the adjacent farms. But in all those places where the sandstone continues to descend below the surface, and the upper part of the granite base is sunk beneath the general level of the country, the springs that make their appearance are few and scanty.

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The reasoning that suggests itself on these facts will lead to the following conclusion:—that the cisterns or cavities in the sandstone mountains, being corroded and fretted away, in the lapse of ages, to a greater depth than the openings or conduits which might, perhaps, at one time, have given their waters vent, the springs can no longer find their way upon the surface, but, oozing imperceptibly between the granite and the sandstone, below the general level of the country, glide in subterraneous streams to the sea.

I am the more inclined to this opinion from the experience of several facts. When Admiral Sir Roger Curtis directed a space of ground, between the Admiralty-house and the shore of Table Bay, to be enclosed as a naval yard, the workmen met with great impediment from the copious springs of pure fresh water that rushed out of the holes, which they found necessary to sink in the sand, for receiving the upright posts. It is a well known fact, that on almost every part of the isthmus that connects the mountainous peninsula of the Cape to the continent, fresh water may be procured at the depth of ten or twelve feet below the sandy surface. Even in the side of the Tyger Hills, at an elevation of twenty feet, at least, above the general surface of the isthmus, when the workmen were driving a level in search of coal, a copious stream of water was collected within it, in the month of February, which is the very dryest season of the year. And on boring, for the same purpose, on Wynberg, they came to a rill of water at the depth of twenty feet below the surface.

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I have already noticed, in my journey to the Namaaqua country, that clear subterraneous streams were every where to be found, in that district, under the sandy beds of the rivers. Water in abundance has always been found by digging wells in Cape Town. Indeed it would be an absurdity to suppose that, in a country where mountains abound, and those mountains for more than two-thirds of the year hid in dense clouds, there could be any scarcity of water. Peculiar circumstances, relating to situation or surface, may conceal that water, but it will always be discovered at or near the sea-coast.

When the late Admiral Sir Hugh Christian ordered a well to be sunk at Saldanha Bay, by directing his attention rather to the convenience of conveying the water to the shipping, than to the certainty of obtaining it, he was led into an error in fixing upon the spot for the experiment, which was so high above the level of the bay, and where the ground was one solid mass of compact granite, that, after boring and blowing up with gunpowder, for several months, with little or no prospect of success, the operation was obliged to be abandoned. On the opposite side of the bay, where the shore is little elevated above the high water mark, several springs have spontaneously burst out of the earth; but for want of being properly opened, so that the water may run off freely, they are suffered to stagnate, and become, as might be expected from the soil and climate, a little brackish. All circumstances here are fully as favorable as at Madras, where the purest and best water is found close to the sea shore.

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These considerations are so obvious, that I should have thought it unnecessary to have dwelt a moment upon the subject, were I not persuaded that a very general opinion prevails with regard to the difficulty, if not the impossibility, of supplying the several bays of the colony with fresh water. I shall only suggest, as another conclusion that may be drawn from what has been said, that the great depth of the commencement of the granite base below the surface may, perhaps, better account for the most considerable rivers of Northern Africa losing themselves in the sand, before they reach the sea, than by supposing the interior parts of this continent to be lower than the level of the ocean; a conjecture that has been held, but which strongly militates against the general order observed throughout the universe.

The two principal rivers, on the western coast, are the *Berg* or Mountain river, which takes its rise in the mountains that enclose the Vale of Drakenstein, and falls into Saint Helena Bay; and the *Oliphant* or Elephant's River, which, after collecting the streamlets of the first chain of mountains in its northerly course along their feet, empties itself into the Southern Atlantic in 31° 30′ south. Though both these rivers have permanent streams of water, sufficiently deep to be navigable by small craft, to the distance of about twenty miles up the country, yet the mouth of the former is choaked up with a bed of sand, and across the latter is a reef of rocks.

On the south coast of the colony the permanent rivers of any magnitude are, the *Broad* River, the *Gauritz* River, the

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Knysna, the *Keurboom* River, the *Camtoos* River, the *Zwart kops* River, the *Sunday* River, and the *Great Fish* River; the last of which terminates the colony to the eastward.

The Broad River is discharged into Saint Sebastian's Bay, which the Dutch consider as a dangerous navigation, though there have been instances of their ships taking shelter there in the north-west monsoon at no great distance from the mouth of the river, which is here a sheet of water more than a mile in width; but, like every other river on this coast, except the Knysna, it is crossed by a bar of sand. Within this bar it might be navigated by small craft about thirty miles up the country; an extent, however, in which there are scarcely half a dozen farm-houses.

The Gauritz River is a collection of water from the Great Karroo plains, the Black Mountains, and the chain that runs parallel, and nearest, to the sea-coast. The branches to the northward of this chain are periodical, but it flows, to the southward, throughout the year, though, in the summer months, with a very weak current. In the rainy season it is considered as the most rapid and dangerous river in the whole colony. Its mouth opens into the sea, where the coast is straight, and it is crossed by a bar of sand which, in summer, is generally dry.

The Knysna, being altogether different from the other rivers in the colony, will be particularly noticed, and a sketch of it given, in a future chapter, to which I must beg leave to refer the reader.

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The Keurboom River, like the Knysna, runs up into the midst of tall forests, and might be navigated by boats to a considerable distance, but its mouth, in Plettenberg's Bay, is completely sanded up by the almost perpetual rolling swell of the sea, from the south-eastward upon the sandy beach.

The Camtoos River is a collection of waters from the same parts of the country as, but more easterly than, the Gauritz River. It falls into a wide bay of the same name, in which the only secure anchorage is opposite the mouth of a small stream called the *Kromme* or Crooked River. Though Camtoos River, just within the mouth, is a wide bason deep enough to float a ship of the line, yet the bar of sand across the mouth is fordable upon the beach at high water, and frequently dry at low water.

The Zwart Kops River is a clear permanent stream of water flowing down one of the most beautiful and fertile valleys in the colony; and is among the very few of those that, by damming, may be turned upon the contiguous grounds. Lieutenant Rice, whom I have had occasion to mention, succeeded by a great deal of perseverance in getting a boat over the bar, and sailed about eight miles up this valley, to which distance only the tide flows. The whole country in the vicinity of the river, and the bay of the same name, into which it falls, is among the most fertile parts of the colony.

The Sunday River, likewise, falls into Algoa or Zwart Kops Bay, opposite to the islands of Saint Croix. It rises in the

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midst of the Snowy Mountains, and continues a permanently flowing stream, broad and shallow in the middle part of its course, and narrow and deep towards the mouth, which, like the rest, is choaked with a bed of sand.

The Great Fish River takes its rise beyond the Snowy Mountains, and, in its long course, collects a multitude of streamlets, most of which are constantly supplied with water. On each side of its mouth is a wild, rocky, and open shore, but the projecting cheeks form a small cove or creek, which, it seems, was frequented by the Portugueze shortly after their discovery of the Cape; though, from the boisterous appearance of the sea, upon the bar that evidently crosses the entrance of the river, it is difficult to conceive how they dared to trust their ships in such an exposed situation, unless, indeed, they were so small as to be able, at high water, to cross the bar, in which case they might lie, at all seasons, in perfect security.

All these rivers are well stocked with perch, eels, and small turtle, and, to a certain distance from the sea-coast, they abound with almost every kind of sea-fish peculiar to this part of the world.

Beside the rivers here enumerated, the whole slip of land, stretching along the sea-coast, between the entrance of False Bay and the Great Fish river, is intersected by streamlets whose waters are neither absorbed nor evaporated; but they generally run in such deep chasms as to be of little use towards the promotion of agriculture by the aid of irrigation.

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DIVISION, POPULATION, AND PRODUCE.

When the Dutch East India Company perceived their settlement extending far beyond the bounds they had originally prescribed, they found it expedient to divide the country into districts, and to place over each a civil magistrate with the title of *Landrost*, who, with his council called *Hemraaden*, was authorized to settle petty disputes among the farmers, or between them and the native Hottentots, levy fines within a certain sum, collect and apply the parochial assessments, and enforce the orders and regulations of Government. His district was distributed into a number of subdivisions, over each of which was appointed a *Feldtwagtmeester* or country overseer, whose duty was to take cognizance of any abuses committed within his division, and report the same to the Landrost, to adjust disputes about springs or water-courses, and to forward the orders of Government.

Little as the authority was which Government had thus delegated to the Landrost and his assistants, that little was subject sometimes to abuse, sometimes to neglect, and very often to contempt.

In fact, all systems of provincial judicature seem liable to the same objections. If too much power be confided in the hands of the magistrates, the temptation to corruption is proportionally great, and to attempt to execute the law without the power would seem a mockery of justice. The

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latter was very much the case in the distant parts of the Cape colony.

For want of such a power the laws have certainly, in most cases, proved unavailing. The Landrost had only the shadow of authority. The council and the country overseers were composed of farmers, who were always more ready to skreen and protect their brother boors, accused of crimes, than to assist in bringing them to justice. The poor Hottentot had little chance of obtaining redress for the wrongs he suffered from the boors. However willing the Landrost might be to receive his complaints, he possessed not the means of removing the grievance. To espouse the cause of the Hottentot was a sure way to lose his popularity. And the distance from the capital was a sufficient obstacle to the preferring of complaints before the Court of Justice at the Cape. Whenever this has happened, the orders of the Court of Justice met with as little respect, at the distance of five or six hundred miles, as the orders of the Landrost and his council. If a man, after being summoned, did not chuse to appear, there was no force in the country to compel him; and they knew it would be fruitless to dispatch such a force from the Cape. Hence murders and the most atrocious crimes were committed with impunity; and the only punishment was a sentence of outlawry for contempt of Court; a sentence that was attended with little inconvenience to the criminal, who still continued to maintain his ground in society, as if no such sentence was hanging over him. It debarred him, it is true, from making his usual visits to the capital, but he found no difficulty in getting his business done by proxy.

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Numberless instances of this kind occurred, yet the system remained the same. Perhaps, indeed, it would be difficult to suggest a better, till a greater degree of population shall compel the inhabitants to dwell in villages, or the limits of the colony be contracted into a narrower compass.

This extensive settlement, whose dimensions have been given above, is divided into four districts, namely,

1. The district of the Cape.
2. ——— of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein.
3. ——— of Zwellendam.
4. ——— of Graaff Reynet.

CAPE DISTRICT.

Of these the Cape district is by much the smallest, but the most populous. It may be considered as divided into two parts; one consisting of the peninsula on which the Town is situated, the other of the slip of land extending from the shore of Table Bay to the mouth of the Berg River in Saint Helena Bay, and separated from Stellenbosch and Drakenstein, on the east, by the Little Salt River, Deep River, and Mossel Bank River, being about eighty miles from north to south, and twenty-five from east to west; containing, therefore, about two thousand square miles. The Cape peninsula is about thirty miles in length and eight in breadth, or two hundred and forty square miles. According to an account of the stock, produce, and land under cultivation, which every man is obliged annually

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to give in to the police officers, and which is called the *Opgaaff* list, it appears that, notwithstanding the comparative short distance of every part of the Cape district from a market, not one fifteenth part of the surface is under any kind of tillage. As by the Cape of Good Hope is usually meant the Southern peninsula of South Africa, on which Cape Town is situated, I shall be more particular in the description of this district than of the rest.

Cape Town is built with great regularity, the streets being all laid out with a line. It is the only assemblage of houses in the Colony that deserves the name of a town; they are generally white-washed, and the doors and windows painted green; are mostly two stories in height, flat-roofed, with an ornament in the centre of the front, or a kind of pediment; a raised platform before the door with a seat at each end. It consists of 1145 dwelling-houses, inhabited by about five thousand five hundred whites and people of color, and ten thousand blacks. It is surrounded with remarkable mountains on every side, except the North, on which it is washed by a spacious bay.

Many of the streets are open and airy, with canals of water running through them, walled in, and planted on each side with oaks; others are narrow and ill paved. Three or four squares give an openness to the town. In one is held the public market; another is the common resort of the peasantry with their waggons from the remote districts of the colony; and a third, near the shore of the bay, and between the town

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and the castle, serves as a parade for exercising the troops. This is an open, airy, and extensive plain, perfectly level, composed of a bed of firm clay, covered with small hard gravel. It is surrounded by canals, or ditches, that receive the waters of the town and convey them into the bay. Two of its sides are completely built up with large and handsome houses. The barracks, originally intended for an hospital, for corn magazines, and wine cellars, is a large, well-designed, regular building, which, with its two wings, occupies part of one of the sides of the great square. The upper part of this building is sufficiently spacious to contain three or four thousand men. The castle affords barracks for 1000 men, and lodgings sufficient for all the officers of a complete regiment; magazines for artillery stores and ammunition; and most of the public offices of government are within its walls. The other public buildings are a Calvinist and a Lutheran church: a guard-house, in which the Burgher Senate, or the council of burghers, meet for transacting business relative to the interior police of the town, a large building, in which the government slaves, to the number of 330, are lodged: the court of justice, where civil and criminal causes are heard and determined: the Lombard bank, and the Chamber of Orphans, both of which are within the walls of the Castle.

Between the town and Table Mountain are scattered over the plain a number of neat houses surrounded by plantations and gardens. Of these the largest and nearest to the town is that in which the government house is erected. It is in length near 1000 yards, and contains about forty acres of rich

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land divided into almost as many squares by oak hedges. The public walk runs up the middle, is well shaded by an avenue of oak trees, and enclosed on each side by a hedge of cut myrtles. The Dutch of late years had entirely neglected this excellent piece of ground; but the spirit of improvement that has always actuated the minds of the English in all their possessions abroad, will no doubt shew itself at this place, and convert the public garden into a place not only ornamental to the town but useful to the country. A part of it, in fact, has already been appropriated, by order of the Earl of Macartney, for the reception of scarce and curious native plants, and for the trial of such Asiatic and European productions as may seem most likely to be cultivated with benefit to the colony.

Of native plants, that which is the most cultivated, in the vicinity of the town, is the *Protea argentea*, the *Witteboom*, or silver tree of the Dutch. Whole woods of it stretch along the feet of the eastern side of the Table Mountain, planted solely for fuel. The *Conocarpa*, another species of Protea, the Kreupel boom of the Dutch, is also planted along the sides of the hills: its bark is employed in tanning leather, and the branches for fire wood. The *grandiflora, speciosa et mellifera*, different species of the same genus, grow every where in wild luxuriance, and are collected for fuel, as are also the larger kinds of *Ericas* or heaths, *phyllicas*, *Brunias*, *polygalas*, the *Olea Capensis*, *Euclea racemosa*, *Sophora*, and many other arboreous plants that grow in great abundance both on the hills of the peninsula, and on the

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sandy isthmus that connects it with the continent. The article of fuel is so scarce that a small cart load of these plants brought to the town costs from five to seven dollars, or twenty to eight-and-twenty shillings. In most families a slave is kept expressly for collecting fire wood. He goes out in the morning, ascends the steep mountains of the peninsula, where waggons cannot approach, and returns at night with two small bundles of faggots, the produce of six or eight hours hard labor, swinging at the two ends of a bamboo carried across the shoulder. Some families have two and even three slaves, whose sole employment consists in climbing the mountains in search of fuel. The expence of a few faggots, whether thus collected or purchased by the load, for preparing victuals only, as the kitchen alone has any fire place, amounts, in a moderate family, to forty or fifty pounds a-year.

The addition to the inhabitants of five thousand troops, and a large fleet stationed at the Cape, has increased the demand for fuel to such a degree, that serious apprehensions have been entertained of some deficiency shortly happening in the supply of this necessary article. Under this idea the attention of the English was particularly directed towards finding out a substitute for wood. The appearance of all the mountains in Southern Africa, being particularly favorable to the supposition that fossil coal might be found in the bowels of most of those inferior hills connected with, and interposed between, them and the sea, His Excellency the Earl of Macartney, well knowing how valuable an acquisition such a discovery would prove to the colony, directed a search to be made. Boring rods were prepared, and men from the regi-

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ments, who had laboured in the collieries of England, were selected to make the experiment. *Wynberg*, a tongue of land projecting from the Table Mountain, was the spot fixed on, and the rods were put down there through hard clay, pipe-clay, iron-stone, and sand-stone, in successive strata, to the depth of twenty-three feet. The operation of boring was then discontinued by the discovery of actual coal coming out, as miners express it, to day, along the banks of a deep rivulet flowing out of the Tygerberg, a hill that terminates the isthmus to the eastward. The stratum of coaly matter appeared to lie nearly horizontal. Immediately above it were pipe-clay and white sand-stone; and it rested on a bed of indurated clay. It ran from ten inches to two feet in thickness; differed in its nature in different parts: in some places were dug out large ligneous blocks, in which the traces of the bark, knots and grain were distinctly visible; and in the very middle of these were imbedded pieces of iron pyrites, running through them in crooked veins, or lying in irregular lumps. Other parts of the stratum consisted of laminated coal of the nature of turf, such as by naturalists would be called Lithanthrax, and pieces occurred that seemed to differ in nothing from that species known in England by the name of Bovey coal. The ligneous part burned with a clear flame, without much smell, and left a residuum of light white ashes like those of dried wood. The more compact earthy and stoney parts burned less clear, gave out a sulphureous smell, and left behind a slaty caulk, that soon contracted on the surface a deep brown ochraceous crust. The borer being put down in several places in hopes of meeting with the main bed of coal, the general result was as follows:

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In the bed of the rivulet:

	Feet.
Coal - - -	2
Blue soapy rock - - -	5
White soapy rock - - -	22
Grey sand-stone with clay - -	21
Sand-stone of chocolate brown - - -	14
Bluish soapy clay - - -	31
Striated sand, red and white, containing clay -	33
	128

Here the operation was discontinued for the present.

Most of the European, and several of the tropical, fruits have already been introduced into the colony, and cultivated with success. In every month of the year the table may be supplied with at least ten different sorts of fruit, green and dry. Oranges of two kinds, the common China and the small Mandarin; figs, grapes, and guavas, are all very good; peaches and apricots not bad. These, when in season, are sold at the rate of one shilling the hundred. Apples, pears, pomegranates, quinces, and medlars, thrive well and bear plentifully, but are not very good. Few indeed are at the pains even of grafting the trees, but suffer them to grow up from the seed. The plums and cherries that are produced in the colony are of an indifferent quality. Gooseberries and currants are said to have been tried, but without success. The nectarine has not yet been introduced. Raspberries are tolerably good, but scarce; and strawberries are brought to market every month of the year. There are no filberts nor common hazel nuts,

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but almonds, walnuts, and chesnuts, all of good quality, are plentiful, as are also mulberries of a large size and excellent flavor.

The market is likewise tolerably well supplied with most of the European vegetables for the table, from the farms that lie scattered along the eastern side of the peninsula, in number about forty or fifty. On some of these farms are vineyards also of considerable extent, producing, besides a supply for the market of green and ripe grapes and prepared raisins, about seven hundred leaguers or pipes of wine a-year, each containing 154 gallons. Of these from fifty to a hundred consist of a sweet luscious wine, well known in England by the name of Constantia, the produce of two farms lying close under the mountains about mid-way between the two bays. The grape is the Muscatel, and the rich quality of the wine is in part owing to the situation and soil, and partly to the care taken in the manufacture. No fruit but such as is full ripe, no stalks are suffered to go under the press, precautions that are rarely taken by the other farmers of the Cape.

The vineyards, gardens, and fruiteries are divided into small squares, and inclosed by cut hedges of oaks, quince trees, or myrtles, to break off the south-east winds of summer, which, from their strength and dryness, are found to be deleterious to vegetation; but the grain is raised on open grounds. The produce of this article on the peninsula is confined chiefly to barley, which, in this country, is preferred to oats for the feeding of horses. None of the common flat-eared barley has yet been introduced, but that hexangular kind only is known, which in some parts of England is called *beer*, and in others *big*. Corn

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is generally cultivated beyond the isthmus and along the western coast, within the great north and south chain of mountains. The remote districts beyond these furnish a supply of horses, sheep, and horned cattle.

The natural productions of the Cape Peninsula, in the vegetable kingdom, are perhaps more numerous, varied, and elegant, than on any other spot of equal extent in the whole world. Of these, by the indefatigable labors of Mr. Masson, his Majesty's botanic garden at Kew exhibits a choice collection; but many are still wanting to complete it. Few countries can boast of so great a variety of the bulbous rooted plants as Southern Africa. In the month of September, at the close of the rainy season, the plains at the feet of the Table Mountain and on the west shore of Table Bay, called now the Green Point, exhibit a beautiful appearance. As in England the humble daisy, in the spring of the year, decorates the green sod, so at the Cape, in the same season, the whole surface is enlivened with the large *Othonna*, so like the daisy as to be distinguished only by a Botanist, springing up in myriads out of a verdant carpet, not however of grass, but composed generally of the low creeping *Trifolium melilotos*. The *Oxalis cernua*, and others of the same genus, varying through every tint of color from brilliant red, purple, violet, yellow, down to snowy whiteness, and the *Hypoxis stellata* or star flower with its regular radiated corolla, some of golden yellow, some of a clear unsullied white, and others containing in each flower, white, violet, and deep green, are equally numerous, and infinitely more beautiful. Whilst these are involving the petals of their shewy flowrets at the setting of the

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sun, the modest *Ixia Cinnamomea*, of which are two varieties, one called here the Cinnamon, and the other the evening, flower, that has remained closed up in its brown calyx, and invisible during the day, now expands its small white blossoms, and scents the air, throughout the night, with its fragrant odour. The tribe of *Ixias* are numerous and extremely elegant; but none more singular than that species which bears a long upright spike of pale green flowers. The *Iris*, the *Morœa*, *Antholiza*, and *Gladiolus*, each furnish a great variety of species not less elegant nor graceful than the *Ixia*. That species of *Gladiolus*, which is here called *Africaner*, is uncommonly beautiful with its tall waving spike of striped flowers, and has also a fragrant smell; that species of a deep crimson is still more elegant. A small yellow *Iris* furnishes a root for the table, in size and taste not unlike a chesnut. These small roots are called *Uyntjes* by the colonists, and that of the *Aponegeton distachion*, which is also eaten, *water uyntjes*. Of those genera which botanists have distinguished by the name of the liliaceous class, many are exceedingly grand and beautiful, particularly the *Amaryllis*, of which there are several species. The sides of the hills are finely scented with the family of *geraniums*; the different species of which, exhibiting such variety of foliage, once started an idea that this tribe of plants alone might imitate in their leaves every genus of the vegetable world.

The frutescent, or shrubby plants, that grow in wild luxuriance, some on the hills, others in the deep chasms of the mountains, and others on the sandy isthmus, furnish an endless variety for the labors of the botanist. Of the numbers of this

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class of naturalists, who have visited the Cape, none have returned to Europe without having added to his collection plants that were neither described nor known. The eye of a stranger is immediately caught by the extensive plantations of the *Protea Argentea*, whose silver colored leaves, of the soft texture of satin, give it a distinguished appearance among the deep foliage of the oak, and still deeper hue of the stone pine. It is singular enough that although the numerous species of *Protea* be indiscriminately produced on almost every hill of the colony, the silver tree should be confined to the feet of the Table Mountain alone, a circumstance that led to the supposition of its not being indigenous to the Cape; it has never yet, however, been discovered in any other part of the world. The tribe of heaths are uncommonly elegant and beautiful: they are met with equally numerous and flourishing on the stony hills and sandy plains; yet, unless raised from seed, are with difficulty transplanted into gardens. Doctor Ronburgh found at least 130 distinct species between the Cape and the first range of mountains. Little inferior to the heaths are the several species of the genera to which botanists have given the names of *Polygala*, *Brunia*, *Diosma*, *Borbonia*, *Cliffortia*, and *Asparagus;* to which might be added a vast variety of others, to be enumerated only in a work professedly written on the subject.

The peninsula of the Cape affords but a narrow field for the inquiries of the Zoologist. The wooded kloofs or clefts in the mountains still give shelter to the few remaining troops of wolves and hyenas that not many years ago were very troublesome to the town. The latter, indeed, generally shuns the habitations of men; but the former, even yet, sometimes ex-

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tends his nightly prowl to the very skirts of the town, enticed by the dead cattle and offals from slaughter-houses that are shamefully suffered to be left or thrown even at the sides of the public roads. In the caverns of the Table Mountain, and indeed in almost every mountain of the colony, is found in considerable number a small dusky-colored animal about the size of a rabbit, with short ears and no tail, called here the Das, and described in the *Systema Naturæ* of *Linnæus* under the name of *Hyrax Capensis*, and by Pennant under that of Cape Cavy. The flesh is used for the table, but is black, dry, and of an indifferent flavor. The *Steenbok*, once the most numerous of the antelope tribe that inhabited the peninsula, is now nearly exterminated out of this part of Africa, though equally abundant with the other two beyond the isthmus. This animal is the *Antelope Grimmea* of Pallas, and the Guinea antelope of Pennant. The horses of the Cape are not indigenous, but were first introduced from Java, and since that, at various times, from different parts of the world. The grizzled and the black Spaniard first brought hither, about twenty years ago, from South America, where the breed now runs wild over that extensive country, are the horses that are most esteemed for their beauty, their gentleness, and service. Though small, and often very ill-fed, they are capable of sustaining a great degree of hard labor. Heavy waggons, however, are chiefly drawn by oxen. These are all indigenous, except the breed from a few European cattle that have lately been introduced. The Cape ox is distinguished by its long legs, high shoulders, and large horns.

The larger kinds of birds that hover round the summit of the Table Mountain are vultures, eagles, kites, and crows,

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that assist the wolves in cleansing the outskirts of the town of a nuisance that is tacitly permitted by the police. Ducks, teals, and snipes, are met with in the winter season about the pools and periodical lakes on the isthmus. Turtle doves, a thrush called the Sprew, and the Fiscal bird, the *Lanius Collaris*, frequent the gardens near the town.

The market is constantly supplied with a variety of sea-fish that are caught in the bay, and every where along the coast. The *Roman*, a deep rose-colored perch, is considered as the best fish in the colony, but is never caught except in False-bay, and on the coast to the eastward of it. It has one back fin with twelve spines, and divided tail; a silver band along each side of the back fin, turning down to the belly, and a blue arched line over the upper mandible connecting the two eyes. Next to the Roman are the red and the white *Steenbrassems*, or Stone-breams, two species, or perhaps varieties only, of perches. They are caught from one to thirty pounds in weight. Of the same genus there are several other species, and all of them tolerably good. One of these called the Cabeljau, with the root of the pectoral fins black, tail undivided, and one back fin, grows to the weight of forty pounds: another, called the Hottentot's fish, from its dirty brown color, with one back fin, and tail bifid, commonly runs about four pounds: another perch, called the Silver-fish, has one back fin, and tail bifid; ground of a rose-colored tinge, with five longitudinal silver bands on each side, described probably as the *perca striata*: and a fourth species, called the *Stompneus*, with one back fin and tail bifid, is distinguished by six transverse bands of black and white spots down each

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side. The *Harder*, a species of *Clupea*, not unlike the common herring, is considered as a good fish; and the *Klip* or rock-fish, the *Blennius viviparus*, makes no bad fry. Another Blennius, called the King Rock-fish, is sometimes caught with the former, to which, from its shape and resemblance to the *Muræna* of the ancients, naturalists have given the specific name of *Murænoides*. The *Elft*, the *Scomber trachurus*, schad or horse mackerel, has a good flavor, but is reckoned to be unwholesome food, and on that account seldom eaten. The *Scomber Scomber*, common mackerel, sometimes makes its appearance after bad weather in large shoals in the bay. The *Springer* is esteemed for the thick fat coating that lines the cavity of the abdomen. The *Speering*, a species of *Antherina*, is a small transparent fish with a broad band, resembling a plate of silver, on each side. The *Knorhaen*, a species of *Trigla*, or Gurnard, with two strong spines on the fore part of each eye, and two on the cover of the gills, is not a bad fish; nor is the common Sole inferior here to that in Europe. Dolphins are sometimes caught in the bay after a gale of wind. That singular species of Ray fish, the electrical torpedo, is well known to the fishermen by the frequent strokes they receive from treading on the small young ones that are often thrown upon the beach in the winter season. Another species is used for the table and eaten by the English under the name of Skate. There is also in some of the rivers of the country an electrical *Silurus*, but it is not eaten; and the *Bagre*, a second species of *Silurus*, commonly caught in the bay, is considered as poisonous. The *Scorpæna Capensis*, called here *Jacob Evertson*, is a firm, dry fish, but not very commonly used. A species of cray-fish and different sorts of crabs are

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plentiful and tolerably good. Muscles of various kinds, and oysters, abound on the sea-coast; the former of a high, strong flavor, but the latter fully as good as those of Europe; they are, however, not to be procured in quantities near the Cape. A species of *Asterias* or Star-fish, and the paper *Nautilus*, are sometimes sent from hence to Europe to be placed in the cabinets of the curious; as is also that singular little animal called by naturalists the *Syngnathus Hippocampus*, and sometimes sea-horse.

Few shells or marine productions are met with on this part of the coast of Africa that would be considered as rare by the naturalist. Small corallines, madrepores, sponges, and other productions of marine animals, are frequently thrown up on the shores of the bays, but such only as are commonly known. The shells that mostly abound are of the univalve tribe. The *patella* genus is the most plentiful; and that large, beautiful, pearly shell, the *Haliotis Midæ*, is very common. *Cypræa*, *Volutes*, and *Cones*, are also abundant. All these are collected on the coast near the Cape, and burnt into lime, there being no limestone on the whole peninsula, and none worth the labor of getting, and the expenditure of fuel necessary for burning it, in any part of the colony.

During the winter season whales are very plentiful in all the bays of Southern Africa, and give to the fishermen a much easier opportunity of taking them than in the open sea. They are smaller and less valuable than those of the same kind in the northern seas, but sufficiently so to have engaged the attention of a Company lately established here for carry-

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ing on a fishery in Table Bay. They run in general from fifty to sixty feet in length, and produce from six to ten tons of oil each. The bone of such small fish is not very valuable. It is remarked that all those which have yet been caught were females; and it is supposed that they resort to the bays as places of shelter to deposit their young. Seals were once plentiful on the rocky islands of False bay, as is still that curious animal the penguin, forming the link of connection between the feathered and the finny tribe.

Insects of almost every description abound in the summer months, and particularly a species of locust which infests the gardens, devouring, if not kept under, every green thing that comes in its way. Musquitoes are less troublesome here than in most warm climates, nor does their bite cause much inflammation; but a small sand fly, so minute as scarcely to be visible, is a great torment to those who may have occasion to cross among the shrubbery of the sandy isthmus. Lizards of various kinds, among which is the cameleon, are very abundant; and small land-turtles are every where crawling about in the high roads and on the naked plains. Scorpions, scolopendras, and large black spiders, are among the noxious insects of the Cape; and almost all the snakes of the country are venomous.

The first appearance of so stupendous a mass of naked rock as the Table Mountain cannot fail to arrest, for a time, the attention of the most indifferent observer of nature from all inferior objects, and must particularly interest that of the mineralogist. As a description of this mountain will,

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with few variations, answer to that of almost all the great ranges in Southern Africa, I may not perhaps be thought too tedious in entering into a detail of its form, dimensions, and constituent parts.

The name of *Table Land* is given by seamen to every hill or mountain whose summit presents to the eye of the observer a line parallel to the horizon. The north front of the Table Mountain, directly facing the town, is a horizontal line, or very nearly so, of about two miles in length. The bold face, that rises almost at right angles to meet this line, is supported, as it were, by a number of projecting buttresses that rise out of the plain, and fall in with the front a little higher than midway from the base. These, with the division of the front, by two great chasms, into three parts, a curtain flanked by two bastions, the first retiring and the others projecting, give to it the appearance of the ruined walls of some gigantic fortress. These walls rise above the level of Table Bay to the height of 3582 feet, as determined by Captain Bridges of the royal engineers, from a measured base and angles taken with a good theodolite. The east side, which runs off at right angles to the front, is still bolder, and has one point higher by several feet. The west side, along the sea-shore, is rent into deep chasms, and worn away into a number of pointed masses. In advancing to the southward about four miles, the mountain descends in steps or terraces, the lowest of which communicates by gorges with the chain that extends the whole length of the peninsula. The two wings of the front, one the Devil's Mountain, and the other the Lion's Head, make in fact, with the Table, but one mountain. The

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depredations of time and the force of torrents having carried away the looser and less compact parts, have disunited their summits, but they are still joined at a very considerable elevation above the common base. The height of the first is 3315, and of the latter 2160 feet. The Devil's Mountain is broken into irregular points; but the upper part of the Lion's Head is a solid mass of stone, rounded and fashioned like a work of art, and resembling very much, from some points of view, the dome of St. Paul's placed upon a high cone-shaped hill.

These three mountains are composed of a multitude of rocky strata piled on each other in large tabular masses. Their exact horizontal position denotes the origin of the mass to be neptunian and not volcanic; and that since its first formation no convulsion of the earth has happened in this part of Africa sufficient to have disturbed the nice arrangement of its parts. The strata of these postdiluvian ruins, not being placed in the order of their specific gravity, might lead to the conclusion that they were deposited in successive periods of time, were it not for the circumstance of their lying close upon each other without any intermediate veins of earthy or other extraneous materials. The stratification of the Cape peninsula, and indeed of the whole colony, is arranged in the following order:

The shores of Table Bay, and the substratum of the plain on which the town is built, compose a bed of a blue compact schistus, generally placed in parallel ridges in the direction of north-west and south-east, but frequently interrupted by large

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masses of a hard flinty rock of the same color, belonging to that class of aggregated stones proposed by Mr. Kirwan to be called granitelles. Fine blue flags, with whitish streaks, are procured from Robben Island, in the mouth of Table Bay, which are used for steps, and for paving the terraces in front of most of the houses.

Upon the Schistus lies a body of strong clay colored with iron from a pale yellow to deep red, and abounding with brown foliated mica. Embedded in the clay are immense blocks of granite, the component parts of which are so loosely cemented together as easily to be separated by the hand. The mica, the sand, and indeed the whole bed of clay, seem to have been formed from the decomposition of the granite. Between the Lion's Head and the sea are vast masses of these aggregated stones entirely exposed. Most of them are rent and falling asunder by their own weight: others are completely hollowed out so as to be nothing more than a crust or shell; and they have almost invariably a small aperture on that side of the stone which faces the bottom of the hill or the sea-shore. Such excavated blocks of coarse granite are very common on the hills of Africa, and are frequently inhabited by runaway slaves.

Resting on the granite and clay is the first horizontal stratum of the Table Mountain, commencing at about five hundred feet above the level of the sea. It is siliceous sand-stone of a dirty yellow color. Above this is a deep brown sand-stone, containing calciform ores of iron, and veins of hematite

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running through the solid rock. Upon this rests a mass, of about a thousand feet in height, of a whitish-grey shining granular quartz, mouldering away in many places by exposure to the weather, and in others passing into sand-stone. The summit of the mountain has entirely undergone the transition into sand-stone; and the skeletons of the rocks, that have hitherto resisted the ravages of time, are surrounded by myriads of oval-shaped and rounded pebbles of semitransparent quartz that were once embedded in them. Those pebbles having acquired their rounded form by friction when the matrix, in which they are still found buried, had not assumed the form and consistence of stone; and the situation of this stratified matrix on blocks of primæval granite, clearly point out a grand revolution to have taken place on the surface of the globe we inhabit. No organized remains, however, of the Old World, such as shells buried in the rock, petrifactions of fishes, or impressions of plants, appear on that side of the Table Mountain next the Town; but I have seen some few arborizations in the Schistus on the south side of the Mountain.

To those whom mere curiosity, or the more laudable desire of acquiring information, may tempt to make a visit to the summit of the Table Mountain, the best and readiest access will be found directly up the face next to the town. The ascent lies through a deep chasm that divides the curtain from the left bastion. The length of this ravine is about three-fourths of a mile; the perpendicular cheeks at the foot more than a thousand feet high, and the angle of ascent about forty-

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five degrees. The entrance into this deep chasm is grand and awful. The two sides, distant at the lower part about eighty yards from each other, converge to the width of a few feet only at the portal, which opens upon the summit, forming two lines of natural perspective. On passing this portal, a plain of very considerable extent spreads out, exhibiting a dreary waste and an insipid tameness, after quitting the bold and romantic scenery of the chasm. And the adventurer may perhaps feel strongly disposed to ask himself if such be all the gratification he is to receive for having undergone so great a fatigue in the ascent? The mind, however, will soon be relieved at the recollection of the great command given by the elevation; and the eye, leaving the immediate scenery, will wander with delight round the whole circumference of the horizon. On approaching the verge of the mountain—

" How fearful
" And dizzy 'tis to cast one's eyes so low!
* * * * *
" The fishermen that walk upon the beach,
" Appear like mice; and yon tall anchoring bark
" Diminish'd to her cock. * * *
* * * " The murmuring surge
" That on the unnumber'd idle pebbles chafes,
" Cannot be heard so high."

All the objects on the plain below are, in fact, dwindled away to the eye of the spectator into littleness and insignificance. The flat-roofed houses of Cape Town, disposed into formal clumps, appear like those paper fabrics which chil-

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dren are accustomed to make with cards. The shrubbery on the sandy isthmus looks like dots, and the farms and their enclosures as so many lines, and the more-finished parts of a plan drawn on paper.

On the swampy parts of the flat summit, between the masses of rock, are growing several sorts of handsome shrubs. The *Penæa mucronata*, a tall, elegant, frutescent plant, is peculiar to this situation; as is also that species of heath called the *Physodes*, which, with its clusters of white flowers glazed with a glutinous coating, exhibits in the sunshine a very beautiful appearance. Many other heaths, common also on the plains, seemed to thrive equally well on this elevated situation as in a milder temperature. The air on the summit, in the clear weather of winter, and in the shade, is generally about fifteen degrees of Fahrenheit's scale lower than in Cape Town. In the summer season the difference is much greater, when that well-known appearance of the fleecy cloud, not inaptly called the *Table Cloth*, envelopes the summit of the mountain.

A single glance at the topography of the Cape and the adjacent country will be sufficient to explain the cause of this phenomenon which has so much the appearance of singularity. The mountainous peninsula is connected with a still more mountainous continent, on which the great ranges run parallel to, and at no great distance from, the sea-coast. In the heat of the summer season, when the south-east moonsoon blows strong at sea, the water taken up by evaporation is borne in

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the air to the continental mountains, where, being condensed, it rests on their summits in the form of a thick cloud. This cloud, and a low dense bank of fog on the sea, are the precursors of a similar, but lighter, fleece on the Table Mountain, and of a strong gale of wind in Cape Town from the south-east. These effects may be thus accounted for: The condensed air on the summit of the mountains of the continent rushes, by its superior gravity, towards the more rarified atmosphere over the isthmus, and the vapor it contains is there taken up and held invisible or in transparent solution. From hence it is carried by the south-east wind towards the Table and its neighbouring mountains, where, by condensation from decreased temperature and concussion, the air is no longer capable of holding the vapor with which it was loaded, but is obliged to let it go. The atmosphere on the summit of the mountain becomes turbid, the cloud is shortly formed, and, hurried by the wind over the verge of the precipice in large fleecy volumes, rolls down the steep sides towards the plain, threatening momentarily to deluge the town. No sooner, however, does it arrive, in its descent, at the point of temperature equal to that of the atmosphere in which it has floated over the isthmus, than it is once more taken up and "vanishes into air—to thin air." Every other part of the hemisphere shews a clear blue sky undisturbed by a single vapor.

The produce of the Cape peninsula is grapes, with all the European and many of the tropical fruits, vegetables of every description, barley for the use of horses, and a small quantity

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of choice wine. Of the other parts of the Cape district; wheat, barley, pulse, and wine.

By a regulation of the Dutch Government, every householder was obliged annually to give in the number of his family, the amount of his live stock, and the produce of his farm. As this had been done in a loose and slovenly manner, and as the augmentation of ten thousand souls to its former population rendered it important to ascertain the means afforded by the colony for their subsistence, Lord Macartney required that, for the future, every man should give in his statement upon oath. When this new regulation was made, the *Opgaaff*, for that year, had already been taken in the usual way, but, on being repeated, the numbers, in some articles, were found to exceed those in the former account in a threefold proportion.

The following is an abstract of the *Opgaaff* for the Cape district in the year 1797, when it was first required to be given in on oath.

Population.

Men	- -	1566
Women	- -	1354
Sons	- -	1451
Daughters	- -	1658
Servants	- -	232
	——Christians	6261

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Brought forward,	Christians	6261
Men slaves - -	6673	
Women slaves -	2660	
Slave children -	2558	
	——Slaves	11,891
Total population of the Cape district		18,152

Of the above number of Christians or free people, 718 are persons of color, and one thousand, nearly, are Europeans.

Stock and Produce.

Horses (his Majesty's cavalry not included)	8334
Horned cattle - - -	20,957
Sheep and goats - - -	61,575
Hogs - - - -	758
Vine plants - - -	1,560,109
Leggers of wine made (each 160 gallons)	7861
Muids of wheat sown in 1796, 3464— reaped - - - -	32,962
Muids of barley sown in 1796, 887— reaped - - - -	18,819
Muids of rye sown in 1796, 39— reaped - - - -	529
Quantity of land employed in vineyards and gardens -	580 morgen
In grain - - -	3089 ditto
Total	3669 morgen or 7338 acres.

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The quantity of land occupied, as given in, amounts to 8018 morgen, or 16,036 acres; but as land measuring is very little understood or attended to, this part of the *Opgaaff* may be considered as incorrect.

The consumption of Cape Town in the same year was,

	Head of Cattle.	Head of Sheep.	Leggers of Wine.	Muids of Wheat.	Muids of Barley.
Army	4562	22,812	2000	10,000	19,460
Navy	1810	9044	1000	6,000	
Inhabitants	5000	130,000	3000	16,900	10,000
Total consumption	11,372	161,856	6000	32,900	29,460

The following table shews the number of marriages, christenings, and burials in Cape Town for eight years.

Years.	Marriages.	Christenings.	Burials.
1790	130	350	186
1791	97	354	146
1792	174	360	144
1793	158	288	116
1794	211	308	111
1795	213	308	145
1796	249	257	168
1797	217	364	157
In 8 years	1449	2589	1173

Making 1416 the excess of christenings above burials in eight years. As all marriages must be performed in Cape

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Town, the column of marriages are those in the whole colony. By comparing the average number of deaths with the population, it will appear that the mortality in the Cape district is about $2\frac{34}{100}$ in the hundred. Of the slaves the mortality is rather more, but less, perhaps, than in any other country where slavery is tolerated. The number, as we have seen, in the Cape district, is 11,891; and the number of deaths, on an average of eight years, was 350, which is after the rate of three in the hundred.

With respect to the natural produce of the Cape district, what has yet been discovered is of little or no importance, except its fisheries. The wax-plant grows abundantly upon the sandy isthmus, but the berries are not considered to be worth the labour of gathering. The collecting of shells to burn into lime, and of heaths and other shrubby plants for fuel, furnish constant employment for about one thousand slaves. The great destruction of the frutescent plants on the Cape peninsula and the isthmus will be very severely felt in the course of a few years. The plantations of the silver-tree, on that brow of Table Mountain which is next to the isthmus, are experiencing the same destruction for the sake of a temporary profit; and so thoughtless, or so indolent, are the proprietors of the land, that little pains are bestowed to keep up a succession of young trees. No further trials have yet been made for coal.

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DISTRICT OF STELLENBOSCH AND DRAKENSTEIN.

Stellenbosch and Drakenstein, though one district under the jurisdiction of one Landrost, have distinct Hemraaden or Councils. After deducting the small district of the Cape, Stellenbosch and Drakenstein include the whole extent of country from Cape L'Aguillas, the southernmost point of Africa, to the River Koussie, the northern boundary of the colony; a line of 380 miles in length; and the mean breadth from east to west is about 150 miles, comprehending an area, after subtracting that of the Cape district, equal to fifty-five thousand square miles. Twelve hundred families are in possession of this extensive district, so that each family, on an average, has forty-six square miles of land, a quantity more than five times that which the Dutch Government thought to be extensive enough to keep the settlers asunder, and sufficient to allow the houses to stand at more than twice the regulated distance of three miles from each other. The greater part, however, of this extensive surface may be considered as of little value, consisting of naked mountains, sandy hills, and Karroo plains. But a portion of the remainder composes the most valuable possessions of the whole colony; whether they be considered as to the fertility of the soil, the temperature of the climate, or their proximity to the Cape, which, at present, is the only market in the colony where the farmer has an opportunity to dispose of his produce. The parts of the district to which I allude, are those divisions beginning at False Bay and stretching along the feet of the great chain of mountains, on the Cape side,

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as far as the mouth of the Olifant's River. These divisions are,

1. *The Drosdy of Stellenbosch.*
2. *Jonker's Hoeck.*
3. *Bange Hoeck.*
4. *Klapmutz.*
5. *Bottelary's Gebergté.*
6. *Saxenberg's Gebergté.*
7. *Eerste River.*
8. *Hottentot's Holland.*
9. *Moddergat.*
10. *Drakenstein* and its environs, consisting of
    - *a.* Little Drakenstein.
    - *b.* Fransche Hoeck.
    - *c.* Paarl Village.
    - *d.* Dall Josephat.
    - *e.* Waagen Maaker's Valley.
    - *f.* Groeneberg.
11. *Pardeberg.*
12. *Riebeek's Casteel.*
13. *East Zwartland.*
14. *Four-and-twenty Rivers.*
15. *Piquetberg.*
16. *Olifant's River.*

The transmontane divisions are,

17. *The Biedouw.*
18. *Onder Bokkeveld.*
19. *Hantum.*

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20. *Khamiesberg.*
21. *Roggeveld*, consisting of Upper, Middle, and Little Roggeveld.
22. *Neiuwveld and the Ghowp.*
23. *Bokkeveld*, warm and cold.
24. *Hex River.*
25. *Breede River.*
26. *Ghoudinee* and *Brandt Valley.*
27. *Roode Sand* or *Waveren.*
28. *Bot River.*
29. *Zwarteberg.*
30. *Drooge Ruggens.*
31. *River Zonder End.*
32. *Uyl Kraal.*
33. *Soetendal's Valley.*

1. The *drosdy of Stellenbosch*, or the residence of the Landrost, is a very handsome village, consisting of an assemblage of about seventy habitations, to most of which are attached offices, out-houses, and gardens, so that it occupies a very considerable space of ground. It is laid out into several streets or open spaces, planted with oaks that have here attained a greater growth than in any other part of the colony, many of them not being inferior in size to the largest elms in Hyde Park. Yet, a few years ago, the most beautiful of these trees were rooted out in order to raise a paltry sum of money towards the exigencies of the parish; and paltry, indeed, it was, the very finest tree being sold at the low price of 20 rix dollars, or four pounds currency, and most of them for not a fourth part of this sum. For such a barbarous act the villagers, in

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some countries, would have been apt to have hung both the Landrost and Heinraaden upon their branches. How far they were suffered to proceed I cannot say, but I saw at least half a hundred of these venerable ruins lying in the streets.

The village is delightfully situated at the feet of lofty mountains, on the banks of the *Eerste* or First River, at the distance of twenty-six miles from Cape Town. In it is a small and neat church, to which is annexed a parsonage house with a good garden and a very extensive vineyard. The clergyman has a salary from Government of 120*l.* a year, with this house, garden, and vineyard, free of all rent and taxes, in lieu of other emoluments received by the clergy of Cape Town. The condition, therefore, of the country clergy is at least equal and perhaps preferable to that of those who reside in the town. Provisions of every kind are much cheaper; they have the advantage of keeping their own cattle; sowing their own grain; planting vineyards and making their own wine; and, in a word, they possess the means of raising within themselves almost all the necessaries of life. In addition to these advantages, if the clergyman should have the good fortune to be popular in his district, which, however, is no easy matter to accomplish, he is sure to be loaden with presents from day to day. Nothing, in such case, is thought too good for the minister. Game of all kinds, fat lambs, fruit, wine, and other "good things of this life," are continually pouring in upon him. His outgoings are chiefly confined to the expence of clothing his family, and a little tea and sugar.

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The establishment of the Landrost is still more sumptuous. He has the enjoyment of a salary and emoluments that seldom fall short of 1500*l.* a year; a most excellent house to live in, pleasantly situated on a plain at the head of the village, before which are a couple of venerable oaks, scarcely exceeded in England; and an extensive garden and orchard, well planted with every kind of fruit, and a vineyard.

Most of the grounds in or near the village are what they call *Eigendoms* or freeholds, though they are held by a small recognizance to Government, but they are totally different from loan-farms, which are the usual kind of tenure in the colony, and of which we shall have occasion to speak hereafter.

2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, *Jonker's Hoeck*, *Bange Hoeck*, *Klapmutz*, *Bottelary's Gebergté*, *Saxenberg's Gebergté*, *Eerste River*, *Hottentot's Holland*, and *Moddergat*, are small divisions surrounding the drosdy, and lying between it and False Bay. They consist chiefly of freehold estates, and produce wine, brandy, fruit, fresh butter, poultry, and a variety of articles for the Cape market, and for the supply of shipping whilst they continue to lie in Simon's Bay. They yield, also, a small quantity of corn, but this article without manure, or a better system of tillage, is scarcely worth the labour of cultivating so near the Cape, where they can employ the land to better advantage. The best farm at Klapmutz was granted in loan to Mr. Duckett, the English agriculturist, for the purpose of making his expements, for the instruction of the African boors.

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10. *Drakenstein* and its environs consist of a fertile tract of country, situate at the feet of the great chain of mountains, at the distance of 30 to 40 miles from the Cape. The whole extensive valley of Drakenstein is well watered by the Berg River and its numerous branches; the soil is richer than in most parts of the colony, and the sheltered and warm situation is particularly favourable to the growth of the vine and different kinds of fruit.

a. This subdivision of Little Drakenstein occupies the middle of the valley, and contains many substantial farms, most of them freehold property; in fact, the two Drakensteins and the next subdivision supply two-thirds of the wine that is brought to the Cape market.

b. Fransche Hoeck, or the French Corner, is situated in the south-east angle of the valley among the mountains, and took its name from the French refugees having settled there, when they fled to this country after the revocation of the edict of Nantz. To these people the colony is indebted for the introduction of the vine. The estates here are mostly freehold property, and produce little else than wine and fruits.

c. The village of the Paarl is situated at the foot of a hill that shuts in the Valley of Drakenstein on the west side. It consists of about thirty habitations disposed in a line, but so far detached from each other, with intermediate orchards, gardens, and vineyards, as to form a street from half a mile to a mile in length. About the middle of this street, on the east side, stands the church, a neat octagonal building covered

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with thatch; and at the upper end is a parsonage-house, with garden, vineyard, and fruit-groves; and a large tract of very fine land. No attention seems to have been omitted by Government in providing comfortably for the country clergy. The blocks of granite, the Paarl and the Diamond, that overhang this village, I have particularly noticed in the first chapter of the first volume.

d. e. Dall Josephat and Waagen-maaker's Valley are two small dales enclosed between the hilly projections that branch out towards the north or upper end of the valley of Drakenstein; the best oranges, as well as the best peaches, and other fruit, are said to be produced in these dales; and the wines are among the first in quality.

f. Groeneberg is the largest of these projecting hills that run across the northern extremity of the valley, and the soil is productive in fruit, wine, and corn.

The whole valley, comprehending the above subdivisions, is comparatively so well inhabited, that few animals, in a state of nature, are now to be found upon it. Of hares, however, there is no scarcity; and two species of bustards, the red-winged and the common partridge, and quails are in great plenty. The *Klip-springer* antelope, and the *reebok* are plentiful in the mountains, and *duykers*, *griesboks*, and *steenboks* not very scarce among the hills towards the northern extremity of the valley. The inhabitants are also annoyed with wolves, hyænas, and jackalls, which descend in the nights from the neighbouring mountains.

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11. *Paardeberg*, or the Horse Mountain, so called from the number of wild horses or zebras that formerly frequented it, is a continuation of the Paarl Mountain to the northward. The produce of the farms is chiefly confined to wheat, which, with a sprinkling of manure, or a couple of years rest, or by fallowing, will yield from fifteen to twenty fold. They cultivate, also, barley and pulse, but have few horses or cattle beyond what are necessary for the purposes of husbandry.

12. *Riebeck's Casteel*, or the Castle of Van Riebeck, may be considered as a prolongation of the Paardeberg, terminating to the northward in a high rocky summit. It took its name from the founder of the colony having travelled to this distance from the Cape, which is about sixty miles, and which, in that early period of the settlement, was as far as it was considered safe to proceed, on account of the numerous natives, whose race has now almost disappeared from the face of the earth. The produce is the same as that of the farms of the last division, in both of which there are as many loan-farms as freehold estates.

13, 14. *East Zwartland*, and *Twenty-four Rivers*. These two divisions consist of extensive plains, stretching, in width, from the Berg River to the great chain of mountains; and as far as the Picquet Berg, in length, to the northward. They are considered as the granaries of the colony. The crops, however, in Zwartland, are as uncertain as the rains, on which, indeed, their fertility almost entirely depends. In the Four-and-twenty Rivers the grounds are capable of being irrigated by the numberless streamlets that issue from the

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great chain of mountains, in their course to the Berg River. Many of these, in their progress over the plain, form large tracts of swampy ground that have been found to produce very fine rice. Wheat, barley, and pulse are the principal articles that are cultivated in these two divisions, but they have plenty of fruit, and make a little wine for their own family use. Should the Bay of Saldanha, at any future period, become the general rendezvous of shipping, these two divisions will be more valuable than all the rest of the colony.

15. The *Picquet Berg* terminates the plains of the Four-and-twenty Rivers to the northward. Here, besides corn and fruit, the inhabitants rear horses, horned cattle, and sheep. And from hence, also, is sent to the Cape market a considerable quantity of tobacco, which has the reputation of being of the best quality that Southern Africa produces.

16. *Olifant's River* is a fine clear stream, flowing through a narrow valley, hemmed in between the great chain of mountains and an inferior ridge called the *Cardouw*. This valley, being intersected by numerous rills of water from the mountains on each side, is extremely rich and fertile; but the great distance from the Cape, and the bad roads over the Cardouw, hold out little encouragement for the farmer to extend the cultivation of grain, fruit, or wine, beyond the necessary supply of his own family. Dried fruit is the principal article they send to market, after the supplies, which they furnish, of horses, horned cattle, and sheep. The country on each side of the lower part of the river is dry and barren, and for many miles from the mouth entirely uninhabited. A chaly-

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beate spring of hot water, of the temperature of 108° of Fahrenheit's scale, flows in a very considerable stream out of the Cardouw Mountain into the Olifant's River. And a bathing-house is erected over the spring.

All the smaller kinds of antelopes, jackals, hares, and partridges, are very abundant in the four last-mentioned divisions.

These divisions of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein, above enumerated, lie on the west or Cape side of the great chain of mountains, and comprehend the most valuable portion of the colony. The transmontane divisions of Stellenbosch are,

17. The *Biedouw*, which is the slanting side of the great mountains behind the Olifant's River, a cold, elevated, rugged tract of country, covered with coppice wood, and very thinly inhabited. The stock of the farmers consists of sheep and horned cattle.

18. *Onder Bokkeveld* is the elevated flat surface of a Table Mountain, whose sides on the west and north are high and almost perpendicular rocks, piled on each other in horizontal strata like those of Table Mountain at the Cape; but it descends with a gentle slope to the eastward, and terminates in Karroo plains. The grasses on the summit are short but sweet, and the small shrubby plants are excellent food for sheep and goats. The horses, also, of this division, are among the best which the colony produces, and the cattle, as is the case in all the mountainous situations, thrive very well. In

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some of the valleys, where the grounds will admit of irrigation, the common returns of wheat are forty, and of barley sixty, for one, without any rest for twenty years, without fallowing, and without manure. In such situations the soil is deeply tinged with iron, and abounds with masses of the same kind of iron-stone which I have already mentioned.

The *Spring-bok*, or the springing antelope, once so abundant in this division, as to have been the cause of its name, is now but an occasional visitor, and seen only in small herds of a few hundreds. *Steenboks* and *orbies* and *griesboks* are still plentiful and large. The *korhanes* or bustards, of three species, and hares are so plentiful that they were continually among the horses feet in riding over the country. On the Karroo plains, close behind the Bokkeveld, are found the two large species of antelope, the *eland* and the *gemsbok*, but their numbers are rapidly diminishing in consequence of the frequent excursions of the farmers on purpose to shoot them; not so much for the sake of their flesh, which, however, is excellent, but for their skins alone.

19. The *Hantam* is a Table Mountain, rising from the surface of the Bokkeveld Mountain, on its eastern extremity, and is surrounded by a number of farms that receive a supply of water from rills issuing out of the base of the mountain. Horses and cattle are the produce of the Hantam, and the former have been found to escape a very fatal disease that is prevalent over the whole colony, by being sent upon the summit of the Hantam Mountain. The inhabitants of this division are liable to the depredations of the Bosjesman Hot-

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tentots, against whom they make regular expeditions in the same manner as from the Sneuwberg.

20. The *Khamies Berg* is a cluster of mountains situated in the middle of the country that formerly was inhabited by the Namaaqua Hottentots, at the distance of five days' journey north-west from the Hantam, over a dry sandy desert almost destitute of water. This cluster of mountains being the best, and, indeed, almost the only habitable part of the Namaaqua country, has been taken possession of by the wandering peasantry, who, to the advantage of a good grazing country, had the additional inducement of settling there from the easy means of increasing their stock of sheep from the herds of the native Hottentots, who, indeed, are now so reduced and scattered among the Dutch farms as scarcely to be considered as a distinct tribe of people.

The copper mountains commence where the Khamiesberg ends, the whole surface of which is said to be covered with malachite, or the carbonate of copper, and cupreous pyrites. But the ores of these mountains, however abundant, and however rich, are of no great value on account of the total want of every kind of fuel to smelt them, as well as of their very great distance from the Cape, and from there being neither bay nor river where they could be put on board of coasting vessels. In the Khamiesberg is also found, in large blocks, that beautiful species of stone to which mineralogists have given the name of Prehnite.

21. *Upper*, *Middle*, and *Little Roggevelds*, or rye-grass countries, are the summit of a long extended Table Mountain,

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whose western front rises out of the Karroo plains behind the Bokkeveld, almost perpendicularly to the height of two or three thousand feet. Stretching to the eastward this summit becomes more broken into inequalities of surface, and rises at length into the mountains of Nieuweld, the Camdeboo, and the Sneuwberg, which may be considered as one extended chain. The great elevation of the Roggeveld, and its being surrounded by Karroo plains, make the temperature in winter so cold, that for four months in the year the inhabitants are under the necessity of descending to the feet of the mountains with their horses, cattle, and sheep. The strongest and largest breed of horses in the whole colony is that of the Roggeveld.

22. *Nieuwveld* and *the Ghoup* are continuations of the Roggeveld Mountain, and join the divisions bearing the same name in the district of Graaff Reynet. They have lately been deserted on account of the number of Bosjesman Hottentots dwelling close behind them.

23, 24. *Warm* and *Cold Bokkeveld* and *Hex River*, are a chain of valleys lying close behind the great mountains, consisting of meadow-land abundantly supplied with water, and appear as if they had once been lakes. They are thinly inhabited, and every kind of cultivation almost totally neglected.

25. *Breede River* is to the southward of the Hex River, and extends to the borders of the Zwellendam district. It is productive in corn, and the part called *Bosjesveld*, or the heathy country, is favourable for sheep and cattle.

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26. *Ghoudinie* and *Brandt Valley* are two small valleys close behind the Fransche Hoeck, extremely rich, and well watered. Through the Brandt Valley runs a stream of hot water, whose temperature at the spring is 150° of Fahrenheit's Scale. With this stream several thousand acres of meadow-ground are capable of being flooded.

27. *Roode Sand* or *Waveren* is an extensive division behind the mountains of Drakenstein, and produces abundance of grain, pulse, fruits, and wine. The pass of Roode Sand is the only waggon-road into this division, and is distant from Cape Town about seventy miles. In this division there is a small neat church, and a very comfortable parsonage-house, with extensive vineyards, orchards, garden, and arable land; and contiguous to the church is a row of houses, the number of which has lately increased.

28, 29, 30, 31. *Bott River*, *Zwarte Berg*, *Drooge Ruggens*, and *River Zonder End* are interposed between Hottentot Hollands Kloof and the borders of Zwellendam; the chief produce of which is corn and cattle, with a small quantity of wine of an inferior quality, cultivated chiefly for the supply of the more distant parts of the colony.

32, 33. *Uyl Kraal* and *Soetendal's* Valley are two divisions stretching along the sea-coast from Hanglip, the east point of Bay False, to the mouth of the Breede River, beyond Cape L'Aguillas, comprehending excellent corn-lands and good grazing ground for horses. The smaller kinds of antelopes

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are very abundant, as are also hares, partridges, and bustards; and towards the Cape L'Aguillas are a few *Zebras*, *Hartebeests*, and *Bonteboks*.

The greater part of this extensive district, beyond the mountains, consists of loan-farms, as that on the Cape side is chiefly composed of freehold estates. The population and produce were ascertained from the Opgaaff list being taken on oath in the year 1798, and were as follows:

Population.

Men - -	1970	
Women - -	1199	
Sons - - -	1845	
Daughters - -	1818	
Servants and people of color	424	
	Christians	7256
Slave men - -	7211	
Slave women - -	3411	
Slaves and people of color	81	
	Slaves	10,703
To these may be added, Hottentots in the whole district, about - - -		5000
Total population of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein		22,959

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Stock and Produce.

Horses - - - -	22,661
Horned cattle - - - -	59,567
Sheep - - - - -	451,695
Wine plants - - - -	11,500,000
Leggers of wine in 1797 - -	7914
Muids of corn - - -	77,063
——— of barley - - - -	32,872
——— of rye - - - -	2053

Quantity of land under cultivation in vineyards and grain, 19,573 morgen, or 39,146 English acres.

DISTRICT OF ZWELLENDAM.

The district of Zwellendam is that tract of country which lies upon the sea-coast between the Breede River on the west, and Camtoos River on the east, and extends northerly to the second chain of mountains called the Zwarte Berg or Black Mountains. Its length is about 380, and breadth 60, miles, comprehending an area of 19,200 square miles, which is occupied by 480 families, so that each family, on an average, has forty square miles of land. This is more than four times the quantity assigned to each loan-farm by the Government. Except in the drosdy the whole district is composed of loan-lands, and may be considered to consist of the following divisions:

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1. The *Drosdy* or *Village of Zwellendam.*
2. The *Country between the Drosdy and Gauritz River,* named according to the rivers that cross it.
3. *Cango.*
4. *Zwarte Berg.*
5. *Trada.*
6. *Mossel Bay.*
7. *Autiniequas Land.*
8. *Plettenberg's Bay.*
9. *Olifant's River.*
10. *Kamnaasie.*
11. *Lange Kloof.*
12. *Sitsikamma.*

1. The *Drosdy of Zwellendam* is situated at the foot of the first chain of mountains that runs east and west or parallel to the sea-coast, and is distant from Cape Town about one hundred and forty miles. It is composed of about thirty houses, scattered irregularly over a small but fertile valley, down the middle of which runs a plentiful stream of water. At the head of the valley stands the house of the Landrost, to which is annexed a large garden well stocked with a variety of fruits, and a spacious vineyard; the whole enclosed and planted with oaks and other trees. In the middle of the village a large church has lately been erected, which is the only place of worship in the whole district.

2. This division comprehends the whole tract of country that lies between the Gauritz River and the drosdy, and is

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well watered by a number of streams issuing from the mountains, upon the banks of which the farm-houses in general are placed. The produce of these is corn, wine, and cattle, but few sheep; the whole district of Zwellendam being unfavourable to this animal, except the three following divisions.

3, 4, 5. *Cango*, *Zwarte Berg*, and *Trada*, are Karroo plains, situated between the first and second chains of mountains, but being well watered by the mountain streams, contain fertile patches of ground. The great distance, however, from the Cape, and the excessive bad roads, operate against an extensive tillage. On these plains are an abundance of ostriches, herds of *Quachas*, *Zebras*, and *Hartebeests*. Behind the first chain of mountains, in these divisions, are two hot springs of chalybeate water.

6. *Mossel Bay* division, sometimes called the *Droogeveldt*, or Dry Country, extends from the Gauritz River to the Great Brakke River that falls into Mossel Bay. The surface is hilly and composed of a light sandy soil, which, when the rains are favorable, is sufficiently fertile in corn. The only natural product in the vegetable kingdom, that is useful as an article of commerce, is the aloe, but the heathy plants along the seashore are more favorable for sheep than in the other parts of this division. The shores of the bay and the sea-coast abound with excellent oysters; and muscles are equally plentiful, but they are very large, and of a strong flavor; and the mouths of all the rivers contain plenty of good fish.

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7. *Autiniequas Land* is the next division to Mossel Bay along the sea-coast, and extends as far eastward as the Kayman's River. The Dutch Government reserved to itself about twenty thousand acres, which is nearly half the division, of the finest land, without exception, in the whole colony, being a level meadow always covered with grass. The mountains approaching near the sea, and being covered with large forest trees, attract the vapours and cause a considerable quantity of rain to fall in the Autiniequas Land in the summer months. The overseer calculated that the land held by Government in this division was fully sufficient for the maintenance of a thousand horses, a thousand head of cattle, and for raising annually ten thousand muids of corn.

8. *Plettenberg's Bay* division begins at the Kayman's River, and continues to the inaccessible forests of Sitsikamma. The whole of this tract of country is extremely beautiful, agreeably diversified by hill and dale, and lofty forests. Within seven miles of the bay are large timber trees, and the surface is almost as level as a bowling-green, over which the several roads are carried. The peasantry, who inhabit this district, are mostly woodcutters, and they earn a very hard subsistence. The great distance from the Cape, being 400 miles of bad road, leaves them little profit on a load of timber, when sold at the dearest rate in the Cape market, so little, indeed, that they prefer to dispose of it at the bay for a mere trifle. Plank of thirteen or fourteen inches wide, and inch thick, may be purchased on the spot at the rate of threepence the foot in length.

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The bark of several of the creeping plants in the forests might be employed as substitutes for hemp. The iron ores near the base of the mountains might be worked by clearing the wood, of which there is an inexhaustible supply. The timber is, undoubtedly, suitable for many purposes, notwithstanding the prejudices that have been entertained against it very undeservedly, and very ignorantly, because about one-eighth part only of the different kinds has ever undergone a trial, and these few by no means a decisive one. The climate is trying for the best timber; and English oak even gives way much sooner here than in its native country, by the alternate exposure to wet weather, dry winds, and scorching sun. Where such exposure has been guarded against, one of the slightest Cape woods, the geel hout or yellow wood, has been known to stand a hundred years without shewing symptoms of decay.

The native trees of the Cape are many of them of quick growth, and advance to a large size, but they are much twisted and shaken by the wind, and generally hollow at heart. Many, however, are perfectly sound, and every way suitable for balk, rafters, joists, and plank, but, I again repeat it, they have never yet met with a fair trial. The bay will hereafter be noticed, and also a harbour called the Knysna, which is in this district, and closer to the forests than even the bay itself.

9. *Olifant's River* runs at the foot of the second chain of mountains or the Zwarteberg to the westward, and falls into the Gauritz River. The soil is Karroo, and strongly tinged

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with iron, and as in some places there is plenty of water, vegetation here is remarkably luxuriant. At each extremity of this division are hot springs of chalybeate water, the temperature from 98° to 110° of Fahrenheit's scale. The inhabitants cultivate the vine for home consumption, and distil from peaches, as well as from grapes, an ardent spirit. But the articles brought to the Cape market are chiefly butter and soap. The *salsola* grows here much more luxuriantly than I have seen it in any other part of the colony. The *mimosa Karroo* grows also along the valley, through which the river flows, to a very large size, and produces a great quantity of gum-arabic; the bark too is superior to that of oak for tanning leather. Small antelopes and hares are sufficiently plentiful, and the beautiful *koodoo* is sometimes shot among the groves of mimosas. Leopards, tyger cats, and different species of the *viverra* genus, as also the river otter, are not uncommon along the wooded banks of the Olifant or Elephant River.

10. *Kamnaasie* is a rough hilly tract of country surrounding a high mountain so called, situate between the Olifant River and the Lange Kloof. The inhabitants are comparatively poor and few.

11. *Lange Kloof* is the long pass which has been particularly noticed in the first Volume.

12. *Sitsikamma* commences at Plettenberg's Bay, and continues along the sea-coast to the Camtoos River. It is chiefly covered with impenetrable forests, on the east of which, how-

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ever, there are extensive plains equally good for the cultivation of grain and the grazing of cattle. No direct road has yet been made through the forests along the sea-coast, so as to be passable by waggons, but the inhabitants are obliged to go round by the Lange Kloof. They bring little to the Cape market on their annual visit, except salted butter and soap. In the forests of Sitsikamma are elephants, buffaloes, and rhinosceroses; and on the plains the large *hartebeest* and *koodoo* antelopes, besides an abundance of small game.

The population and produce of Zwellendam, as ascertained by the Opgaaff, taken on oath in the year 1798, are as follows:

Population.

Men	1070	
Women	639	
Sons	971	
Daughters	987	
Servants and free people of color	300	
Christians		3967
Men slaves	2196	
Women slaves		
Slave children		
Hottentots in the service of the peasantry, on a calculation	500	
Slaves and Hottentots		2696
Total population of Zwellendam		6663

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Stock and Produce.

Horses - - - -	9,049.
Horned cattle - - - -	52,376
Sheep - - - - -	154,992
Leggers of wine made - - -	220½
Muids of wheat reaped in 1797 - -	16,720
——— of barley } - - -	10,554.
——— of rye }	

DISTRICT OF GRAAF REYNET.

The district of Graaf Reynet extends to the eastern extremity of the colony. The Great Fish River, the Tarka, the Bambosberg, and the Zuureberg, divide them from the Kaffers on the east; the Camtoos River, the Gamka or Lions' River, and Nieuwveld Mountains, from the districts of Zwellendam and Stellenbosch on the west; Plettenberg's Landmark, the Great Table Mountain, and the Karreeberg, from the Bosjesman Hottentots on the north; and it is terminated by the sea-coast on the south. The mean length and breadth of this district may be about 250 by 160 miles, making an area of 40,000 square miles, which is peopled by about 700 families; consequently each family may command 57 square miles of ground, which is more than six times the quantity regulated by Government. Great part, however, has been occasionally abandoned on account of incursions made both by the Kaffers and Bosjesmans. The inhabitants, indeed, are a sort of Nomades, and would long before this have pene-

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trated with their flocks and herds far beyond the present boundaries of the colony, had they not met with a bold and spirited race of people in the Kaffers, who resisted and effectually repelled their encroachments on that side. Their persecution of the Hottentots in their employ has at length rouzed this people, also, to make an effort for their former independence. Should they succeed, and it is their own fault if they do not, for it appears they are superior in point of numbers, and much so in courage, the whole or the greatest part of the district of Graaf Reynet must, in consequence, be abandoned by the Dutch African peasantry.

The boors of this district are entirely graziers; few attempting to put a plough or a spade into the ground; except in Zwart Kop's Bay, or in some parts of the Sneuwberg, preferring a life of complete indolence and a diet of animal food to the comfort of procuring a supply of daily bread, and a few vegetables, by a very trifling degree of exertion. In Sneuwberg, indeed, the depredations of the locusts are discouraging to the cultivator, as the odds are great he reaps nothing, while this devouring insect remains in the country. About the drosdy, also, they cultivate a little grain, which they exchange with the grazier for sheep and cattle.

The district of Graaf Reynet is entirely composed of loan-farms, and it is divided as follows:

1. The *Drosdy*.
2. *Sneuwberg*, consisting of three parts.
3. *Swagers Hoeck*.

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4. *Bruyntjes Hoogté.*
5. *Camdeboo.*
6. *Zwarte Ruggens.*
7. *Zwarte Kop's River.*
8. *Zuure Veldt.*
9. *Bosjesman's River.*
10. *Tarka.*
11. *Sea-cow River and Rhinoscerosberg.*
12. *Zwarte Berg.*
13. *Nieuwveld* and the *Ghowp.*

1. The *Drosdy*, or residence of the Landrost, is a small village in the centre of the district, and rather more than 500 miles from Cape Town. It consists in about a dozen mud-houses covered with thatch. That of the Landrost is of the same description, to which are annexed a garden and vineyard; but the grapes here seldom come to perfection, on account of the cold blasts from the Snowy Mountains, at the feet of which the village is situated. The land is red Karroo, and uncommonly fertile where the Sunday River can be brought to flood it. I observed here seventy distinct stems from one single grain of corn.

Under the idea of civilizing the rude boors of this district, Lord Macartney made suitable provision for a clergyman, and the foundation was laid for a large church. Long, however, before the outer walls were built, they thought fit to expel the clergyman that had been sent down to them; and the building was only just finished when the English evacuated the place.

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2. *Voor*, *Middle*, and *Agter Sneuwberg*, the near, middle, and ulterior Snowy mountains, may be considered as the grand nursery of sheep and horned cattle, particularly of the former. Of these many families are in possession of flocks from two to five thousand. Between the people of these divisions and the Bosjesman Hottentots there is a perpetual warfare, which is imprudently fomented by the former making prisoners for life of the children they take from the latter.

In no part of the colony are such immense flocks of the *springbok* as in the divisions of the Snowy Mountains. Five thousand in one group are considered only as a moderate quantity, ten, twelve, or fifteen thousand being sometimes found assembled together, especially when they are about to migrate to some other part of the country. The *bontebok*, the *eland*, the *hartebeest*, and the *gemsbok*, are also plentiful, and small game in vast numbers. On the banks of the Fish River are two wells of hepatized water, of the temperature of 88° of Fahrenheit's scale. They are considered to be efficacious in healing sprains and bruises, and favorable to rheumatic complaints, to which the great changeableness of the climate renders the inhabitants subject. In several of the mountains of this division are also found, adhering to the sandstone rocks, large plates of native nitre, from half an inch to an inch in thickness, but not in quantities sufficient to make it an object of attention as an article of commerce.

3. *Swaager's Hoeck* is a small division within the mountains at the head of Bruyntjes Hoogté, tolerably well wa-

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tered and fertile in grain, which, however, is very sparingly cultivated.

4. *Bruyntjes Hoogté* lies upon the banks of the Great Fish River, and is considered as the best division in the whole district for horses and horned cattle, and equally suitable for the cultivation of grain and fruits; but the enormous distance from any market holds out no encouragement to the farmer to sow more grain than is necessary for family use, and many of them take not the trouble of sowing any. The *bosch bok* and pigmy antelope are common in this district; and buffaloes and rhinosceroses haunt the thickets upon the banks of the Great Fish River.

All the disturbances of Graaf Reynet have originated in this division. Its proximity to the Kaffers held out an irresistible temptation to the boors to wage war against them for the sake of plundering them of their cattle; yet none of the boors are in better circumstances than those of Bruyntjes Hoogté. The very man who was most active in promoting a Kaffer war, according to his *Opgaaff*, had between 800 and 900 head of cattle, and more than 8000 sheep, all of which, in their late disturbances with the Kaffers, he very deservedly lost.

5. *Camdeboo* extends along the feet of the Snowy Mountains, from the drosdy to Bruyntjes Hoogté, and is chiefly composed of Karroo plains, which, however, are extremely fertile in the chasms down which the streams of the moun-

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tains constantly flow. The oxen are large and strong, and the sheep little inferior to those of the Snowy Mountains. The beautiful animal the *gnoo* is frequently seen bounding over the plains of Camdeboo, and *springboks* and *hartebeests* are very plentiful.

6. *Zwarte Ruggens* is a rough stony tract of country to the southward of Camdeboo, very scantily supplied with water, and producing little except succulent plants, among which are two or three species of euphorbia. Few families are found in this division, but here and there in the neighbourhood of the Sunday River, which runs through it. The cattle and sheep are small, but generally in good condition, notwithstanding the apparent scarcity, I might almost say total absence, of grass.

7. *Zwarte Kop's River* is a fertile and extensive division, lying to the southward of the Zwarte Ruggens, and is capable of producing an abundant supply of grain, convenient to be delivered at a trifling expence at the bay, which I shall hereafter have occasion to notice. About fifteen miles to the westward of the bay are large forests of timber trees, near which there is every appearance of a rich mine of lead, as I particularly noticed in the former volume. I had occasion also to speak of the salt lake near the bay, and the plentiful supply of that article which it produces. Wax from the *myrica cerifera* and aloes might be furnished by this division as articles of commerce.

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8. *Zuure Veldt* is an extensive plain country stretching from the Sunday River in Zwarte Kop's Bay to the Great Fish River, and is the same kind of good arable or pasture land as the plains of the *Autiniequas* division in Zwellendam, but it is now exclusively in the possession of the Kaffers, from whom, indeed, it was originally taken forcibly by the boors. The great chasms towards the sea-coast, that are filled with thickets, abound in elephants and buffaloes; and in the Great Fish River are, occasionally at least, a few of the hippopotamus or river horse.

9. *Bosjesman's River* joins the Zuure Veld to the northward, and is a dry hilly country without any verdure, except in the hollows. It is thinly inhabited.

10. The *Tarka* is a small division at the north-eastern extremity of the colony, almost entirely deserted on account of its proximity to several hordes of Bosjesman Hottentots. It was in the mountains that terminate this division that I found the drawing of the unicorn on the caverns. The *bontebok*, the *eland*, and the *gnoo*, are common in the *Tarka*.

11. *Sea-cow River* and *Rhinoscerosberg* lie to the northward of the Snowy Mountains, and consist of detached hills rising out of extensive plains, and are well covered with grass. All kinds of game are particularly abundant in these divisions, and there is scarcely a species of antelope within the limits of the colony that may not be met with here. The inhabitants are in a state of perpetual warfare with the

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Bosjesmans, and are frequently obliged to desert this part of the country.

12. *Zwarte Berg* is a portion of the mountain of the same name in the district of Zwellendam, to which, indeed, this also ought properly to belong. Sheep and horned cattle are the chief produce of the farmers.

13. *Nieuwveldt* and the *Ghowp* are also portions of the mountains of the same names, in the Stellenbosch district, and extend from thence to the Sneuwberg. They are occasionally deserted on account of the incursions of the Bosjesman Hottentots.

The Opgaaff list taken on oath at the drosdy of Graaf Reynet, in the year 1798, was as follows:

Population.

Men - - -	940
Women - - -	689
Sons - - -	1170
Daughters - -	1138
Servants, schoolmasters with their families - -	189
Persons of color and their families	136
Christians	4262

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Brought forward,	Christians	4262
Men slaves - -	445	
Women slaves - -	330	
Slave children - -	189	
	Slaves	964
Hottentots in the whole district (taken in the Opgaaff) - - - -		8947
Total population of Graaf Reynet		14,173

Stock and Produce.

Horses - - - - -	7,392
Horned cattle - - - -	118,306
Sheep - - - -	780,274
Leggers of wine made - - -	187 5/10
Muids of wheat reaped 1797 - -	11,283½
—— of barley - - - -	5,193¼

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TOTAL AMOUNT of the Opgaaff Lists of the four Districts, being the exact State of the *Population*, *Stock*, and *Produce* of the whole Colony (the British Army and Navy, and British Settlers not included) in the year 1798.

Population.	Cape.	Zwellendam.	Stellenbosch.	Graaf Reynet.	Totals.
Christians	6261	3967	7256	4262	21,746
Slaves	11,891	2196	10,703	964	25,754
Hottentots		500	5000	8947	14,447
Total	18,152	6663	22,959	14,173	61,947
Stock and produce					
Horses	8334	9049	22,661	7392	47,436
Heads of cattle	20,957	52,376	59,567	118,306	251,206
Sheep	61,575	154,992	451,695	780,274	1,448,536
Hogs	758				758
Wine plants	1,560,109		11,500,000		13,060,109
Leggers of wine	786½	220½	7914	187⅝	9108 5/16
Muids of wheat	32,962	16,720	77,063	11,283¼	138,028¼
—— of barley	18,819	10,554	32,872	5193¼	67,438¼
—— of rye	529		2053		2582

TENURES OF LANDS.

The Dutch Government having obtained a tract of country from the Hottentots, at first by purchase and extended afterwards by force, made grants of land to the settlers on the four following tenures:

1. *Loan lands.*
2. *Gratuity lands.*
3. *Quit rents.*
4. *Freeholds.*

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1. The most ancient tenure is that of Loan lands. These were grants, made to the original settlers, of certain portions of land to be held on yearly leases, on condition of paying to Government an annual rent of twenty-four rix dollars. Every farm was to consist of the same quantity, and be subject to the same rent, without any regard being paid to the quality of the land. And though the lease was made out for one year only, yet the payment of the rent was considered as a renewal; so that the tenure amounted, in fact, to a lease held in perpetuity. And the buildings erected on it, together with the vineyards and fruit groves planted, called the *upstals*, were saleable like any other property, and the lease continued to the purchaser.

When application was intended to be made for the grant of a leasehold farm, the person applying stuck down a stake at the place where the house was meant to be erected. The overseer of the division was then called to examine that it did not encroach on the neighbouring farms, that is to say, that no part of any of the surrounding farms were within half an hour's walk of the stake; or, in other words, that a radius of about a mile and a half, with the stake as a centre, swept a circle which did not intersect any part of the adjoining farms. In such case the overseer certified that the loan farm applied for was tenable, otherwise not. And as it generally happened that the site of the house was determined by some spring or water-course, the stake was so placed that the circumference of the circle described left a space between the new and some adjoining farm of one, two, or more miles in

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diameter. This intermediate space, if less than three miles in diameter, was considered as not tenable, and, consequently, if any person (willing to pay the established rent for a smaller quantity of land than Government allowed) applied for such intermediate piece of ground, his application was sure to be rejected. Whether the Government had any design of dispersing the people by such an absurd system, under the idea of keeping them more easily in subjection, I can't pretend to say, but it thought proper to encourage the continuance of the system, which is in full force to this moment.

The disputes about these stakes or *baakens*, as they call them, are endless; and partly through accident, but frequently by design, the stakes are so placed that, on an average throughout the whole colony, the farms are at twice the distance, and consequently contain four times the quantity of land allowed by Government.

The number of these loan farms registered in the office of the receiver of the land revenue, on closing the books in 1798, were,

In the district of the Cape - -	110
—— Stellenbosch and Drakenstein -	689
—— Zwellendam- - -	541
—— Graaf Reynet - -	492
Total	1832

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Supposing each farm to consist only of the usual allowance, or a square of three miles the side, the quantity of land in all the loan farms will amount to 10,552,320 acres; and the annual rent they produce is about 44,000 rix-dollars, which is at the rate of about eight-tenths of a farthing an acre. Yet, moderate as these rents are, the Dutch Government could not prevent their running in arrears, the amount of which, at the capture, was upwards of 200,000 rix dollars. From the payment of this arrear they were excused by the British Government. Yet, nevertheless, they pay the small rent reserved so unwillingly and irregularly, that new arrears are every day accruing.

2. Gratuity lands are such as were originally granted in loan, but, on petition of the holders, in consequence of some supposed services done to Government, have been converted into a sort of customary copyhold liable to a certain rent, which, like the loan-lands, is continued at 24 rix dollars a-year. Such estates, except a few in Zwellendam, are at no great distance from the Cape, and, in general, are in a better state of cultivation than the loan farms. Their number, as registered in the Land Revenue Office, are,

In the district of the Cape - -	43
—— Stellenbosch and Drakenstein -	46
—— Zwellendam - - -	18
Total	107

3. The quit-rents arise from pieces of waste ground which, from their contiguity or convenience to an estate, have been

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allowed by Government to be occupied by the owners of such estates upon a lease of fifteen years, on condition of their paying an annual rent of one shilling an acre. Before the expiration of the lease a prolongation of the term for another fifteen years is petitioned, and the renewal seems now to have become a matter of course. Of such grants there are,

In the Cape district - - -	25
——— Stellenbosch and Drakenstein -	10
Total	35

4. Real estates held in fee-simple, and subject to no rent, are chiefly situated in the Cape district, or its vicinity. These are the choicest patches of land, and have originally been sold or granted to the early settlers in parcels of about 60 morgen, or 120 English acres. It is natural to suppose that lands held in fee-simple should be in a higher state of improvement than those held by any other tenure, and so, in fact, they are, though by no means brought to that degree which might be expected. A Cape farmer has no idea of bestowing much labor or employing his capital in the prospect of a distant profit. He is unwilling to plant trees, because he may not live to reap the benefit of them. Yet, in this climate, there is no great interval of time between dropping the seed into the ground and the growth of the tree. The oak, the stone-pine, the poplar, and the native silver tree, are all of quick vegetation. One *Van Reenen*, a brewer at the foot of the Table Mountain, on the east side, planted a wood of the silver tree twelve years ago,

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on waste ground, from which he now supplies the town and garrison with fuel; and for which he refused the offer of between three and four thousand pounds as it stood on the spot.

Estates in the Cape remain but a short time in the same family. Their descent is seldom settled, as by the laws of the colony all the children are entitled to equal shares of the property at the death of the parents. The advantages to which primogeniture in some countries entitles, are here entirely unknown. Superior in point of equity, as such a rule must be acknowledged to be, the consequence of it is an indifference to all improvement of estates beyond what will be productive of immediate profit. The proprietor endeavours to enrich himself by lending out money, increasing his stock of slaves, of cattle, and furniture, or by purchasing other estates, but he rarely thinks of improving them. He is little ambitious of leaving a name behind him, or of settling any branch of his family upon the same spot that raised him to independence and affluence. Old *Cloete*, the late proprietor of Constantia, forms a solitary exception from this remark. Having raised himself from the situation of trumpeter of a regiment into affluence, his whole attention was directed to the improvement of his estates, which he divided among his children. His favourite Constantia he left to the son who bore his own name, and it is provided, in his will, that this estate shall descend directly in the male line to him who bears his Christian name, or collaterally to the nearest of kin to his own Christian name and a *Cloete*. The consequence of which is, that Constantia is the most improving estate in the colony.

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There are, perhaps, few countries where property so frequently changes hands as at the Cape of Good Hope. Not only do estates go out of a family at the death of the parents, when they are sure to be sold in order to make a division of the property among the children, but there seems to be an universal propensity to buy, sell, and exchange. Of this the Government has taken the advantage, and imposed a duty of four per cent. on all immoveable property that is transferred from one person to another. Two-thirds of the property, disposed of at the Cape, is by public auction, on which the vendue master charges two per cent., 1½ per cent. for Government, and ½ per cent. for himself; so that the duty on transferring an estate amounts to 6 per cent. upon the value. In fifteen sales, therefore, by adding the expence of stamps and writings, Government runs away with the whole capital; and I have been informed, there are instances, within the memory of many persons, of estates being sold this number of times. I myself purchased a small estate that, within the last eight years, has changed hands six times; paying thrice a duty to Government of 6 per cent., and thrice of 4 per cent., making a tax of 30 per cent. on the value of the property. It may be observed, that this rage for buying and selling makes the transfer and the public vendue duties two of the most productive branches of the public revenue.

CONDITION OF THE INHABITANTS.

If the condition of mankind was to be estimated entirely by the means that were furnished for supplying an abun-

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dance, or preventing a scarcity, of the necessary articles of life, and it must be confessed they constitute a very essential part of its comforts, the European colonists of the Cape of Good Hope might be classed among the happiest of men. But as all the comforts of this world are blended with their concomitant evils, as roses are placed on stems surrounded with thorns, so these people, in the midst of plenty unknown in other countries, can scarcely be considered as objects of envy. Debarred from every mental pleasure arising from the perusal of books or the frequent conversation of friends, each succeeding day is a repetition of the past, whose irksome sameness is varied only by the accidental call of a traveller, the less welcome visits of the Bosjesmans, or the terror of being put to death by their own slaves, or the Hottentots in their employ. The only counterpoise to this wearisome and miserable state of existence, is a superfluity of the necessaries of life, as far as regards the support of the animal functions, which all, of every description among the colonists, have the means of acquiring with little exertion either of body or mind.

A short sketch of the circumstances and resources of the several classes of the colonists will be sufficient to convey a general idea of their respective conditions. The 22,000 Christian inhabitants that compose the population of this colony may be reduced into four classes.

1. *People of the town.*
2. *Vine-growers.*

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3. *Grain-farmers.*
4. *Graziers.*

1. The free inhabitants of Cape Town, let their condition be what it may, are too proud or too lazy to engage in any kind of manual labor; and two thirds of them owe their subsistence to the feeble exertions of their slaves. And for the better encouragement of this class of unfortunate beings, who otherwise could have little inducement to put out their strength or talents to the best advantage; and in order to derive to themselves a certain fixed income from their labors, each slave is required to bring home to his proprietor a certain sum at the end of every week; all that he can earn above this sum is for his own use: and many are industrious enough to raise as much money in a few years as is sufficient to purchase their freedom, and sometimes that of their children. The price of provisions and the price of labor bear no sort of proportion. Butcher's meat is only about twopence a pound, and good brown bread, such as all the slaves eat, one penny a pound. A common laboring slave gets from two shillings to half a crown a day, and a mechanic or artificer five or six shillings a day. Yet an European will with ease perform at least three times the work of a slave.

There is not, perhaps, any part of the world, out of Europe, where the introduction of slavery was less necessary than at the Cape of Good Hope. Nor could it ever have found its way into this angle of Africa, had the same spirit of Batavian ndustry which, to make room for its numerous population,

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drove in the ancient limits of the ocean, possessed the minds of those who first formed the settlement. A temperate climate, a sufficiently fertile soil, a mild and peaceable race of natives, were advantages that few infant colonies have possessed. But although these advantages still exist to a certain degree, yet, such is the prevalence of custom, that the present inhabitants appear to be equally blind to them as their predecessors were. To encourage the native Hottentots in useful labor, by giving them an interest in the produce of that labor; to make them experience the comforts of civilized life, and to feel they have a place and a value in society, which their miserable policy has hitherto denied to them, would be the sure means of diminishing, and, in time, of entirely removing the necessity of slavery. Few negroes, in fact, were imported during the seven years which the English kept possession of the colony; and those few were introduced in captured ships, or by the roguery of two or three English slave merchants, or by special permission. The extravagance of the price which the farmer, by the increased demand and value of his produce, could afford to give, was too strong a temptation for the dealer in human flesh to resist. From one hundred to four hundred pounds sterling was the price of a choice slave in Cape Town; and it was by no means unusual to find from twenty to thirty, of different descriptions, in one house. Some of these, indeed, were artificers, and hired out at certain rates for the day, week, or month. The most active and docile, but at the same time the most dangerous, slaves, are the Malays. They are faithful, honest, and tolerably industrious; but so impatient of

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injury, and so vindictive, that the slightest provocation will sometimes drive them into fits of phrenzy, during the continuance of which it would be unsafe to come within their reach. The revengeful spirit of a Malay was strongly marked by an occurrence which happened some little time after the capture of the settlement. Conceiving that he had not only served his master with great fidelity, but a sufficient length of time, exclusive of the several sums of money he had given him, to entitle him to his freedom, he was one day tempted to remonstrate on the subject, and to demand his liberty, which, however, the master with more harshness than was necessary thought fit to refuse. The following morning the Malay murdered his fellow-slave. On being taken and brought up for examination before a commission of the Court of Justice, he not only confessed the fact, but acknowledged that the boy he had murdered was his friend. Being questioned as to the motives which had led to the perpetration of so horrid an act, he calmly observed, that having considered the most effectual revenge he could practise on his master was not by taking away his life, but by robbing him of the value of a thousand rixdollars, in the loss of the boy, and another thousand by bringing himself, in so doing, to the gallows, he could not but exult in what he had done, as the recollection of the loss would prey upon his master's avaricious mind for the remainder of his life.

It is a circumstance not easily to be accounted for, that the Dutch should have given the preference to this race of men, of talents much inferior to those of the Hottentots, and

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whose temper, always capricious, becomes on slight provocations cruel and revengeful. The negroes of Mosambique and of Madagascar are harmless and stupid on their first arrival, but soon become cunning and dishonest by intercourse with their elder brethren. In full possession of all the vices that must infallibly result from the condition of slavery, there is yet no part of the world where the domestic slaves of every description are so well treated, and so much trusted, as at the Cape of Good Hope. They are better clothed, better fed, and infinitely more comfortable, than any of the peasantry of Europe. Yet such are the bad effects which the condition of slavery produces on the mind, that they are incapable of feeling the least spark of gratitude for good and gentle usage, whilst, under the severe hand of a rigid and cruel master, they become the best of slaves. It may be considered as an axiom or self-evident truth, that such are and always will be the consequences of degrading man to the lowest of all conditions, that of being made the property of man.

The Dutch use little prudence or precaution with regard to their domestic slaves: in the same room where these are assembled to wait behind their masters' chairs, they discuss their crude opinions of liberty and equality without any reserve; yet they pretend to say that, just before the English got possession of the Cape, and when it was generally thought the French would be before-hand with us, the slaves who carried the sedan chairs, of which no lady is without one, used very familiarly to tell their mistresses,

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"We carry you now, but by-and-by it will be your turn "to carry us." The proportion of slaves to whites, of both sexes and all ages, in the town, is not more than two to one: but that of slave men to white men is near five to one.

The field slaves belonging to the farmers are not, however, nearly so well treated as those of the town; yet infinitely better than the Hottentots who are in their employ. The farmer, indeed, having a life-interest in the one, and only five-and-twenty years in the other, is a circumstance that may explain the difference of treatment. The one, also, is convertible property, an advantage to which they have not yet succeeded in their attempts to turn the other. The country slaves, notwithstanding, are ill fed, ill clothed, work extremely hard, and are frequently punished with the greatest severity; sometimes with death, when rage gets the better of prudence and compassion.

The bad effects that a state of slavery invariably produces on the minds and habits of a people, who have the misfortune to be born and educated in the midst of it, are not less felt at the Cape than in the warmer climates. Among the upper ranks it is the custom for every child to have its slave, whose sole employment is to humour its caprices, and to drag it about from place to place lest it should too soon discover for what purposes nature had bestowed on it legs and arms. Even the lower class of people think it would be degrading to their children to go out as servants, or be bound as ap-

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prentices to learn the useful trades, which, in their contracted ideas, would be to condemn them to perform the work of slaves.

The management of the young people is almost wholly left to the slaves, and their education much neglected. The government made an attempt, but without success, at the establishment of a public school; and the individual had no other ambition but that of qualifying his sons, by writing and accounts, to become servants of the Company. This body of merchants had a number of persons in their employ who were very ill paid. Their salaries indeed were insufficient to afford them a bare subsistence; but it tacitly allowed them to negociate for themselves. The consequence of such a system was what might easily have been foreseen, that each became a kind of petty dealer, and dealt very frequently and liberally with the wares and merchandize of his employers. Each had his little private shop in some corner of his house. The most paltry articles were in the list of their commodities for sale; and those who ranked high in the government, and assumed a string of full-sounding epithets to their names, felt no sort of indignity in retailing the produce of their gardens; not indeed avowedly, but through the medium of their slaves. In fact, the minds of every class, the governor, the clergy, the fiscal, and the secretary of the court of justice excepted, were wholly bent on trade. *Koopman* or merchant was a title that conferred rank at the Cape, to which the military even aspired. On this subject the ideas of the Dutch differ widely from those of the Chinese, who have degraded

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the merchant into the very lowest order of their society. The Dutch have a remarkable propensity for public vendues. Not a day passes without several of these being held in the town both before and after dinner. And it is no uncommon thing to see the same identical articles exposed at two different sales on the same day. In fact, a vendue is a kind of lottery. A man buys a set of goods in the morning, which he again exposes to sale in the evening, sometimes gaining and sometimes losing. Yet all moveable property, on sale by public auction, is liable to a duty of 5 per cent., 3½ of which the auctioneer is accountable for to Government; the remainder is for himself. I cannot give a stronger instance of the rage for vendues than by observing that in four successive months of the year 1801, the amount of property sold by public auction was 1,500,000 rix dollars, a sum equal to the whole quantity of paper money in circulation, which, indeed, may be considered as the only money, of late years, that has circulated in the country. In what manner, therefore, these articles were to be paid for is a sort of mystery, which, however, the declining state of the colony may long before this have sufficiently explained.

The better sort of people are those who are employed in the different departments of government. Many have estates in the country, and derive a revenue from their produce. Others again are a sort of agents for the country boors, and keep houses to lodge them when they make their annual visit to the town. These men are a sort of Jew brokers, who live entirely by defrauding the simple boors in disposing of their produce,

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and purchasing for them necessaries in return. A boor in the Cape can do nothing for himself. Unaccustomed to any society but those of his family and his Hottentots, he is the most awkward and helpless being on earth, when he gets into Cape Town, and neither buys nor sells but through his agent. The emancipated slaves and people of color are generally artificers; many of them support their families by fishing. During the whole year there is great plenty and variety of fish caught in Table Bay, and cheap enough for the poorest families to make a daily use of.

The leading pleasures of the inhabitants are chiefly of the sensual kind, and those of eating, drinking, and smoking predominate; principally the two latter, which, without intermission, occupy the whole day. They have little or no relish for public amusements. They love not any kind of exercise but that of dancing. A new theatre was erected, but plays were considered to be the most stupid of all entertainments, whether the performance was English, French, or German. To listen three hours to a conversation was of all punishments the most dreadful. I remember, on one occasion only, to have observed the audience highly entertained; this was at an old German soldier smoking his pipe; and the encouragement he met with in this part of his character was so great, and his exertions proportioned to it, that the whole house was presently in a cloud of tobacco smoke.

There is neither a bookseller's shop in the whole town, nor a book society. A club called the *Concordia* has lately aspired

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to a collection of books, but the pursuits of the principal part of the members are drinking, smoking, and gaming. Under the direction of the church is a library, which was left by an individual for the use of the public, but it is rarely disturbed either by the public or by individuals. In this collection are some excellent books, particularly rare and valuable editions of the classics, books of travels and general history, acts of learned societies, dictionaries, and church history. Books are rarely found in Cape Town to constitute any part of the furniture of a house. So little value do they set on education, that neither Government, as I before observed, nor the church, nor their combined efforts, by persuasion or extortion, could raise a sum sufficient to establish a proper public school in the colony; and few of the natives are in circumstances to enable them to send their children for education to Europe. But those few who have had this advantage generally, on their return, relapse into the common habits of the colonists, finding how unnecessary in this country are the exertions of body or mind for procuring a subsistence. I repeat, that if the measure of general prosperity was to be estimated according to the ease of procuring abundance of food, the people of the Cape may be considered as the most prosperous on earth, for there is not a beggar in the whole colony, and no instance of any person having suffered for want of the common necessaries of life.

By habitual indolence, excess of food, and fondness for indulging in sleep, they become no less gross in their persons, than they are vulgar in their manners. A young lady described the Cape and its inhabitants in very few words: "*De*

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"*menschen zyn mooy dik en vet de huizen mooy wit en groen:*
"*The people are all nice and plump; the houses are prettily*
"*whitewashed and painted green.*" I believe there is no country in the world that affords so large a proportion of unwieldy and bulky people; and I am certain there is none where the animal appetites are indulged with less restraint, the most predominant of which are eating and drinking, or where the powers of body or mind are capable of less exertion. "When the "Devil catches a man idle he generally sets him to work," is a proverb which is every day exemplified at the Cape of Good Hope. They are active only in mischief; and crimes against morality meet with applause if the end be successful. A man, who in his dealings can cheat his neighbour, is considered as a *slim mensch*, a clever fellow; even stealing is not regarded as criminal, nor does it materially affect the character of the thief. Truth is not held as a moral virtue, and lying passes for ingenuity.

There is a great want of affection among near relations; it has been observed, indeed, that there are scarcely two brothers in the Cape who will speak to each other. The manner in which children are brought up, and in which the economy of a family is managed, is little favourable to social intercourse, or likely to excite that harmony of sentiment and union of interests which, in more civilized countries, are cherished and grow to maturity by the genial warmth and cheerfulness and comfort of a family fire-side. Here the members of the same family seldom meet together. The husband, having slept the greater part of the day, finds his bed irksome in the morning and rises with the dawn. He takes his solitary cup of coffee,

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or *sopie*, or both, and smokes his pipe; then lounges about the house in his *slaap mutz* and *nagt cabbaay*, his night cap and gown, or parades the *stoop*, or raised platform before the door, in the same dress, with a long pipe stuck in his mouth. About nine o'clock he takes a solid breakfast, and a few glasses of wine, continues to lounge about the house till dinner-hour, which is punctually at twelve, or, if the weather be tempting, or any news stirring, he walks out to meet his comrades. Immediately after dinner he goes to bed, rises again at five or six, makes or receives visits, when he smokes tobacco and drinks wine till nine o'clock, which is the signal for every one to repair to his own house. Here a hot supper, consisting of eight, ten, or even twenty solid dishes of fish and butcher's meat, dressed in a variety of shapes, is ready to receive him, smoking on the table. This is the favourite meal, to which he considers all that he has eaten and drunk and smoked in the course of the day, as whets only to the appetite, and preparatives to the grand feast. Thus day after day,

> "The lazy glutton safe at home will keep,
> "Indulge his sloth, and fatten with his sleep."

The good woman of the house rises about the same early hour with her husband; takes her coffee alone; scolds the slaves; sets them their daily task; dresses for a *vendutie* or public sale, of which there are never fewer than three or four in the town, or its vicinity, every day of the week; comes home to dinner at twelve, and then goes to bed; rises again with her husband; receives or pays visits with him; but here they separate; the men drink and smoke in one room; the

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women are left to themselves in another. The poor children scramble as well as they can among the slaves, to whom they are consigned, one in one room, and another in another; each, in the better sort of families, having its proper slave, called its *aya*, a Malay term, borrowed, perhaps, from the Portuguese or Italian, signifying nurse or protectress; and, by an inevitable consequence, the *aya* is looked up to through life with more affection than the natural parents.

Little as character is regarded, they are extremely tenacious of their rank. More quarrels have arisen about ladies taking precedency in the church, or placing their chairs nearest the pulpit, than on any other occasion. In the government of Lord Macartney a serious dispute arose on this subject, between the ladies of the Landrost or Chief Magistrate of the district, and of the Minister of the parish; and memorial was presented after memorial on both sides, stating their mutual claims and mutual grievances. His Lordship, feeling the delicacy of interposing his authority between two ladies of such high rank, recommended a compromise, suggesting, in case that should not go down, that he would be under the necessity of adopting the decision of the Emperor Charles the Fifth, when on a somewhat similar occasion he settled a dispute of precedency between two women of fashion at Brussels; "Let "the greater simpleton of the two have the *pas*;" which made the two ladies prodigiously civil to each other ever afterwards, both striving which should give, instead of take, the precedency. A Dutch nobleman, who is the only titled man in the colony, and who held in the old government one of the

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highest employments, felt no degradation in associating with butchers, nor in bestowing the hand of his daughter on an attorney who, for his mal-practices, had been publicly declared *infamous* by the Court of Justice; but he would have thought himself disgraced if his wife and daughter were deprived of their rank in the church.

There are, however, as must be the case in every society, a number of worthy people in the colony, to whom the above observations do not apply: men, whose talents and information, propriety of conduct, and strict integrity, would command respect in any part of the world; but the number of these is comparatively so small, as to make only an exception to the general character. I need scarcely observe, that these people met with that consideration and attention from the British government to which they were entitled; whilst those of the other class experienced the neglect and contempt they so justly deserved.

House-rent, fuel, and clothing are all dear in Cape Town; yet, I will be bold to say, there is no town nor city in all Europe, where the mass of the people are better lodged or better clothed; and fire is less necessary here than in most parts of Europe. The keep of a horse in Cape Town was never less, under the English Government, than 25*l.* sterling a year, yet every butcher, baker, petty shopkeeper, and artificer, had his team of four, six, or eight horses and his chaise. It is true, his horses were lent out for hire one day, and drew himself and his family another; but still it seemed inexplicable how they contrived to keep up an establishment so much beyond their

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apparent means. Their creditors, I imagine, long before this, will best be able to give a satisfactory explanation, since British money has ceased to circulate among them.

It is true, they are neither burthened with taxes nor assessments. Except on public vendues and transfer of immoveable property, Government has been remarkably tender in imposing on them burthens, which, however, they might very well afford to bear. Their parochial assessments are equally moderate. At the first establishment of the colony a kind of capitation tax was levied under the name of *Lion and Tyger money*. The fund so raised was applied to the encouragement of destroying beasts of prey, of which these two were considered as the most formidable. But as lions and tygers have long been as scarce in the neighbourhood of the Cape, as wolves are in England, the name of the assessment has been changed, though the assessment itself remains, and is applied to the repairs of the roads, streets, water-courses, and other public works. The sum to be raised is fixed by the police, and the quota assigned to each is proportioned to the circumstances of the individual; the limits of the assessment being from half a crown to forty shillings. The persons liable must be burghers, or such as are above sixteen years of age, and enrolled among the burgher inhabitants. The ordinary amount is fixed at about 5000 rix dollars a year.

Another assessment to which heads of families are liable is called *Chimney and Hearth money*. This is, properly speaking, a house tax, fixed at the rate of eightcenpence a month, or 4½ rix dollars a year, for every house or fire-place. This

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would seem to be an unfair assessment, as the richest and the poorest inhabitant, the man with a large house and he who possesses only a cottage, are liable to the same contribution; but it is presumed that every house, great or small, has its kitchen fire-place and no other. The amount of this assessment is about 5200 rix dollars, which, at the above rate, corresponds very nearly with the number of houses in the town.

They are not subject to any tythes or church-rates whatsoever, towards the maintenance of the clergy; these being paid in the most liberal manner out of the treasury of Government. Nor is any demand made upon them for the support of the poor. The very few that, through age or infirmities, are unable to maintain themselves, are supported out of the superfluities of the church. Where the mere articles of eating and drinking are so reasonably procured as in the Cape, it is no great degree of charity for the rich to support their poor relations, and, accordingly, it is the common practice of the country. Those who come under the denomination of poor are, for the most part, emancipated slaves, who may not have the benefit of such relations. Nor does the church provide for such on uncertain grounds. Every person manumitting a slave must pay to the church fifty rix dollars or ten pounds, and at the same time give security that such slave shall not become burdensome to the church for a certain number of years.

The police of the Town is committed to the management of a board consisting of six burghers, called the Burgher Senate. The functions of this board are various and im-

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portant, but they are performed in that careless and slovenly manner which is ever the case where men are compelled to accept an office to which there is annexed neither pay nor emolument. The only exception that I know of to this remark is the situation of an English justice of peace. In most public employments of a permanent nature, like that of the Burgher Senate, if the emoluments are not such as to make it worth a man's while to keep his place, the odds are great that the duties of it will be neglected. This was the rock upon which the Dutch, in all their East India settlements, split. The appointments of their servants were so small, that those who held them could not live without cheating their employers; and this was carried on to such an extent, as to become a common observation that, in proportion as the Company's finances were impoverished, their servants were enriched.

The business of the Burgher Senate consists in seeing that the streets be kept clean and in proper repair; that no nuisance be thrown into the public avenues leading to the town; that no encroachments be made on public property; that no disorderly houses be suffered to remain; no impositions practised on the public; no false weights nor measures used. They are authorized to regulate the prices of bread; to inquire from time to time into the state of the harvest; and to take precautions against a scarcity of corn. They are to devise measures and suggest plans to Government that may seem proper and effective for keeping up a constant succession of coppice wood for fuel in the Cape district. They are directed to take particular care that the tradesmen of the

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town, and more especially the smiths and cartwrights, impose not on the country boors in the prices of utensils necessary for carrying on the business of agriculture. They are to report such crimes, trespasses, and misdemeanors, as come within their knowledge, to the Fiscal, who is the Chief Magistrate of the police, and Attorney-General of the colony.

It would be in vain to expect that such various and important duties should be faithfully fulfilled for a number of years without any consideration of profit or hope of reward; or that every advantage would not be taken which the situation might offer. Some of the members of the Burgher Senate send their old and infirm slaves to work at the public roads, and receive for them the same wages as are paid to able-bodied men; others have teams of horses and waggons that never want employ. These things are trifling in themselves, but the public business suffers by them. When the English took the place, the streets were in so ruinous a condition as scarcely to be passable with safety. A small additional assessment was laid upon the inhabitants, and in the course of five years they had nearly completed a thorough repair of the streets, to the great improvement of the town.

It has been the remark of most visitors, that the young ladies of the Cape are pretty, lively, and good-humoured; possessing little of that phlegmatic temper which is a principal trait in the national character of the Dutch. The difference indeed in the manners and appearance of the young men and the young women, in the same family, is inconceivably great. The

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former are clumsy in their shape, awkward in their carriage, and of an unsociable disposition; whilst the latter are generally of a small delicate form, below the middle size, of easy and unaffected manners, well dressed, and fond of social intercourse, an indulgence in which they are seldom restrained by their parents, and which they as seldom turn to abuse. They are here indeed less dependant on, and less subject to, the caprice of parents than elsewhere. Primogeniture entitles to no advantages; but all the children, male and female, share alike in the family property. No parent can disinherit a child without assigning, on proof, one at least of the fourteen reasons enumerated in the Justinian Code. By the law of the colony, a community of all property, both real and personal, is supposed to take place on the marriage of two persons, unless the contrary should be particularly provided against by special contract made before marriage. Where no such contract exists, the children, on the death of either parent, are entitled to that half of the joint property which was supposed to belong to the deceased, and which cannot be withheld on application after they are come of age.

It is but justice to the young females of the Cape to remark, that many of them have profited much more than could be expected from the limited means of education that the place affords. In the better families, most of them are taught music, and some have acquired a tolerable degree of execution. Many understand the French language, and some have made great proficiency in the English. They are expert at the needle, at all kinds of lace, knotting, and tambour work, and in general make up their own dresses, following the pre-

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vailing fashions of England brought from time to time by the female passengers bound to India, from whom they may be said to

"Catch the manners living as they rise."

Neither are the other sex, while boys, deficient in vivacity or talent; but for want of the means of a proper education, to enlarge their minds and excite in them a desire of knowledge, they soon degenerate into the common routine of eating, smoking, and sleeping. Few of the male inhabitants associate with the English, except such as hold employments under the government. This backwardness may be owing in part to the different habits of the two nations, and partly, perhaps, to the reluctance that a vanquished people must always feel in mixing with their conquerors. No real cause, however, of complaint or disaffection could possibly be alleged against the English government at the Cape. No new taxes were imposed; but, on the contrary, some of the old ones were diminished, and others modified. The demand and value of every production of the colony were very considerably increased, while the articles of import fell in their prices. More than 200,000 rixdollars of arrears in rent of land were remitted to the inhabitants by the British government, as well as 180,000 rixdollars of dubious debts. They preserved their laws and their religion, both of which continued to be administered by their own people. They enjoyed as great a share of rational liberty as men, bound to each other, and to the whole, by the ties that a state of society necessarily imposes, could possibly expect, and much greater than under their former government. Property was

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secure in every instance, and raised to double its former value: and none had the loss of life of any friend or relation to lament at the time of, or since, the capture; for it was taken and maintained without bloodshed. Their paper currency, fabricated by the government in order to get over a temporary distress, but which it had never been able to take out of circulation, bore a depreciation of 40 *per cent.* at the time of the capture, and a silver dollar was scarcely to be seen. The former was brought back to be nearly at par with specie, and not less than two millions of the latter were sent from England and thrown into circulation. Every person enjoyed his share of the general prosperity. The proprietor of houses in town more than doubled his rent; and the farmer in the country, where formerly he received a rixdollar for each of his sheep, afterwards received three. Seven years of increasing prosperity, of uninterrupted peace and domestic tranquillity, were not, however, sufficient to convince these silly people of their happy lot; but the restoration of the colony to its ancient possessors corrected their mistake, in this respect, in as many months.

2. The Vine-growers or, as they are usually called at the Cape, the Wine-boors are a class of people who, to the blessings of plenty, add a sort of comfort which is unknown to the rest of the peasantry. They have not only the best houses and the most valuable estates, but, in general, their domestic economy is managed in a more comfortable manner than is usually found among the country farmers. Most of them are descendants of the French families who first introduced the vine. Their estates are mostly freehold, in extent about 120

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English acres, and the greater part is employed in vineyards and garden grounds. Their corn they usually purchase for money or in exchange for wine. Their sheep also, for family use, they must purchase, though many of them hold loan farms on the other side of the mountains. The produce of their farms, however, is sufficient for keeping as many milk cows as are necessary for the family; and they have abundance of poultry. The season for bringing their wine to market is from September to the new vintage in March, but generally in the four concluding months of the year, after which their draught oxen are sent away either to their own farms or others in the country till they are again wanted. The deep sandy roads over the Cape isthmus require fourteen or sixteen oxen to draw two leggers of wine, whose weight is not 2½ tons.

The tax upon their produce is confined to that part of it which is brought to the Cape market, and is at the rate of three rix dollars for every legger of wine, and the same sum for every legger of brandy that passes the barrier. All that is consumed at home, or sold in the country, is free of duty. Neither are they subject to any parochial taxes or assessments, except a small capitation tax towards the repair of the streets and avenues leading to the town, and the *Lion and Tyger money* for the exigencies of the district. They are equally exempt, with the people of the town, from church and poor rates; the former being liberally provided for by Government, and the other description of people not being known in the country districts. The wine farmers take their pleasure to Cape Town, or make frequent excursions into the

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country, in their tent waggons drawn by a team of six or eight horses; an equipage from which the boor derives a vast consequence over his neighbour, who may only possess a waggon drawn by oxen.

The following rough sketch, which was given to me by one of the most respectable wine boors, of his outgoings and returns, will serve to shew the condition of this class of colonists.

Outgoings.

The first cost of his estate was	15,000 Rix dollars.	
15 Slaves *a* 300 *r. d.* each -	4,500	
80 Wine leggers *a* 12	960	
Implements for pressing, distilling, &c.	500	
3 Team of oxen	500	
2 Waggons -	800	
Horse-waggon, and team -	900	
Furniture, utensils, &c.	2000	
Amount	25,160.	*Rix dollars.*
Interest 6 per cent.		1509 5
3 Sheep per week for family use, 156 per year, *a* 2½		390 0
Clothing 15 slaves *a* 15 *r. d.* each per year -		225 0
Carried over		2124 5

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Brought over		R. D. 2124 5
Corn for bread 36 muids *a* 3 *r.d.* - -		108 0
Tea, coffee, and sugar - - -		150 0
Clothing for the family and contingencies -		350 0
Duty at the barrier on 120 leggers of wine and brandy		360 0
Wear and tear 100 *r.d.* parochial assessments 20		120 0
Amount of outgoings		3212 5

Returns.

100 Leggers of wine brought to market *a* 30	3000	
20 Ditto of brandy ditto *a* 50 - -	1000	
The wine and brandy sold to the country boors, with the fruit and poultry brought to the Cape market, are more than sufficient to balance every other contingent and extraordinary expence.		
Amount of returns	4000	4000
Balance in favor of the farmer		R. D. 787 3
		or *L.* 157 8 3

which sum may be considered as a net annual profit, after every charge on the farm and on housekeeping has been defrayed.

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The payment of an estate purchased is made sufficiently easy to the purchaser. The customary conditions are to pay by three instalments, one-third ready money, one-third in one year, and the remaining third at the end of the second year; and the latter two-thirds bear no interest. And even the first instalment he can borrow of Government, through the loan bank, by giving the estate as a mortgage, with two sufficient securities. So that very large estates may be purchased at the Cape with very little money, which is the chief reason of the multiplicity of vendues.

3. The corn-boors live chiefly in the Cape district, and those parts of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein that are not distant more than two or three days' journey from the Cape. Their farms are some freehold property, some gratuity land, but most of them loan farms. Many of these people are in good circumstances, and are considered in rank next to the wine-boor. The quantity of corn they bring to market is from a hundred to a thousand muids each, according to the quality of their farm, but more commonly to their skill and industry. They supply, also, the wine-boor and the grazier. The grain sold to these in the country is subject to no tax nor tythe; but a duty amounting not quite to one-tenth of the value is paid at the barrier for all grain passing towards Cape Town. Their parochial assessments are the same as those of the wine-boor.

The colonists of the Cape are miserable agriculturists, and may be said to owe their crops more to the native goodness

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of the soil and favorable climate, than to any exertions of skill or industry. Their plough is an unwieldy machine drawn by fourteen or sixteen oxen, just skims the surface, and, if the soil happens to be a little stiff, is as frequently out of the ground as in it; hence, in most of their corn fields, may be observed large patches of ten, fifteen, or twenty square yards without a stem of grain upon them. Such grounds, when sown and harrowed, are infinitely more rough than the roughest lea-ploughing in England. They have not the least idea of rolling the sandy soils, which are sometimes so light as to be sown without ploughing. Sometimes, towards the end of the rainy season, they turn the ground and let it lie fallow till the next seed-time; but they rarely give themselves the trouble of manuring, except for barley.

For returns of corn in general they reckon upon fifteen fold; in choice places from twenty to thirty, and even much greater where they have the command of water. The grain is not thrashed, but trodden out in circular floors by cattle. The chaff and short straw of barley are preserved as fodder for their horses, and for sale; the rest of the straw is scattered about by the winds. They do not even give themselves the trouble of throwing it into the folds where their cattle are pent up by night, which would be the means of procuring them a very considerable supply of manure, and, at the same time, be of service to their cattle in cold winter nights.

The following rough statement will serve to shew the circumstances of an ordinary corn-boor of the Cape.

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Outgoings.

The price of the opstal or buildings on his loan farm -	R. D. 7000		
50 Oxen *a* 15 *r.d.* - -	750		
50 Cows *a* 8 *r.d.* - -	400		
12 Horses *a* 40 - -	480		
6 Slaves *a* 300 - -	1800		
2 Waggons - -	800		
Furniture - - -	1000		
Implements of husbandry -	500		
	12,730.	Interest	763 6
Clothing for slaves - - -			90 0
Ditto for the family - - -			150 0
Tea and sugar - - - -			100 0
Duty on corn brought to maket 150. Parish taxes 20			170 0
Contingencies, wear and tear, &c. - -			150 0
Corn sold to the wine-boors and graziers more than sufficient to defray all other expences.			
Amount of outgoings			1423 6

Returns.

300 Muids of corn *a* 4 *r.d.*	R. D.	1200
100 Ditto of barley *a* 3 *r.d.* -		300
6 Loads of chaff *a* 32 *r.d.* -		192
Carried over		1692

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Brought over	R. D. 1692	1423	6
1000 lbs. butter *a* 1½ *sk.*	- 250		
5Horses sold annually *a* 40 *r. d.*	200		
Amount of returns		2142	0
Balance in favor of the farmer		R. D. 718	2
		or *L.* 143	13

4. The graziers, properly so called, are those of Graaf Reynet and other distant parts of the colony. These are a class of men, of all the rest, the least advanced in civilization. Many of them, towards the borders of the settlement, are perfect Nomades, wander about from place to place without any fixed habitation, and live in straw-huts similar to those of the Hottentots. Those who are fixed to one or two places are little better with regard to the hovels in which they live. These have seldom more than two apartments, and frequently only one, in which the parents with six or eight children and the house Hottentots all sleep; their bedding consists generally of skins. Their hovels are variously constructed, sometimes the walls being mud or clay baked in the sun, sometimes sods and poles, and frequently a sort of wattling plaistered over with a mixture of earth and cow-dung, both within and without; and they are rudely covered with a thatch of reeds that is rarely water-proof.

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Their clothing is very slight; the men wear generally a broad brimmed hat, a blue shirt, and leather pantaloons, no stockings, but a pair of dried skin shoes. The women have a thick quilted cap that ties with two broad flaps under the chin, and falls behind across the shoulders; and this is constantly worn in the hottest weather; a short jacket and a petticoat, no stockings, and frequently without shoes. The bed for the master and mistress of the family is an oblong frame of wood, supported on four feet, and reticulated with thongs of a bullock's hide, so as to support a kind of mattress made of skins sewed together, and sometimes stuffed with wool. In winter they use woollen blankets. If they have a table it is generally of the boor's own making, but very often the large chest that is fitted across the end of their ox-waggon serves for this purpose. The bottoms of their chairs or stools are net-work of leather thongs. A large iron pot serves both to boil and to broil their meat. They use no linen for the table; no knives, forks, nor spoons. The boor carries in the pocket of his leather breeches a large knife, with which he carves for the rest of the family, and which stands him in as many and various services as the little dagger of Hudibras.

Their huts and their persons are equally dirty, and their whole appearance betrays an indolence of body, and a low groveling mind. Their most urgent wants are satisfied in the easiest possible manner; and for this end they employ means nearly as gross as the original natives, whom they affect so much to despise. If necessity did not sometimes set the in-

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vention to work, the Cape boor would feel no spur to assist himself in any thing; if the surface of the country was not covered with sharp pebbles, he would not even make for himself his skin-shoes. The women, as invariably happens in societies that are little advanced in civilization, are much greater drudges than the men, yet are far from being industrious; they make soap and candles, the former to send to Cape Town in exchange for tea and sugar, and the latter for home-consumption. But all the little trifling things, that a state of refinement so sensibly feels the want of, are readily dispensed with by the Cape boor. Thongs cut from skins serve, on all occasions, as a succedaneum for rope; and the tendons of wild animals divided into fibres are a substitute for thread. When I wanted ink, a mixture of equal quantities of brown sugar and soot, moistened with a little water, was brought to me in lieu of this article, and soot was substituted for a wafer.

To add to the uncleanliness of their huts, the folds or *kraals* in which their cattle remain at nights are immediately fronting the door, and, except in the Sneuwberg, where the total want of wood obliges them to burn dung cut out like peat, these kraals are never on any occasion cleaned out; so that in old established places they form mounds from ten to twenty feet high. The lambing season commences before the rains finish; and it sometimes happens that half a dozen or more of these little creatures, that have been lambed over night, are found smothered in the wet dung. The same thing happens to the young calves; yet, so indolent and helpless is the boor, that rather than yoke his team to his waggon and

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go to a little distance for wood to build a shed, he sees his stock destroyed from day to day and from year to year, without applying the remedy which common sense so clearly points out, and which requires neither much expence nor great exertions to accomplish.

If the Arcadian shepherds, who were certainly not so rich, were as uncomfortable in their cottages as the Cape boors, their poets must have been woefully led astray by the muse. But Pegasus was always fond of playing his gambols in the flowery regions of fancy. Without a fiction, the people of the Cape consider Graaf Reynet as the Arcadia of the colony.

Few of the distant boors have more than one slave, and many none; but the number of Hottentots amounts, on an average in Graaf Reynet, to thirteen in each family. The inhumanity with which they treat this nation I have frequently had occasion to notice. The boor has few good features in his character, but this is perhaps the worst. Not satisfied with defrauding them of the petty earnings of their industry, and with inflicting the most cruel and brutal punishment for every trifling fault, they make it a common practice to retain the wife and children after turning adrift the husband; thus dissolving the tender ties of social intercourse, and cutting off even the natural resources of wretchedness and sorrow. It is in vain for the Hottentot to complain. To whom, indeed, should he complain? The Landrost is a mere cypher, and must either enter into all the views of the boors, or lead a most uncomfortable life. The last, who was

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a very honest man, and anxious to fulfil the duties of his office, was turned out of his district, and afterwards threatened to be put to death by these unprincipled people, because he would not give them his permission to make war upon the Kaffers; and because he attended to the complaints of the injured Hottentots. The boor, indeed, is above all law. At the distance of five or six hundred miles from the seat of Government he knows he cannot be compelled to do what is right, nor prohibited from putting in practice what is wrong. To be debarred from visiting the Cape is no punishment to him. His wants, as we have seen, are very few, nor is he nice in his choice of substitutes for those which he cannot conveniently obtain. Perhaps the only indispensable articles are gunpowder and lead. Without these a boor would not live one moment alone, and with these he knows himself more than a match for the native Hottentots and for beasts of prey.

The produce of the grazier is subject to no colonial tax whatsoever. The butcher sends his servants round the country to collect sheep and cattle, and gives the boors notes upon his master, which are paid on their coming to the Cape. They are subject only to a small parochial assessment, proportioned to their stock. For every hundred sheep he pays a florin, or sixteenpence, and for every ox or cow one penny. With the utmost difficulty Government has been able to collect about two-thirds annually of the rent of their loan-farms, which is only 24 rixdollars a year. Under the idea that they had been dreadfully oppressed by the Dutch Government, and that their poverty was the sole cause of their run-

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ning in arrears with their rent, the British Government forgave the district of Graaf Reynet the sum of 200,000 rix-dollars, the amount to which their arrears had accumulated. By descending a little closer to particulars we shall be able to form a better judgment of the condition of these people, and how far their poverty entitled them to the above-mentioned indulgence.

The district of Graaf Reynet, as we have already observed, contains about 700 families. Among these are distributed, according to the *Opgaaff* (and they would not give in more than they had, being liable to an assessment according to the number), 118,306 head of cattle, and 780,274 sheep, which, to each family, will be about 170 heads of cattle and 1115 sheep.

Out of this stock each boor can yearly dispose of from 15 to 20 head of cattle, and from 200 to 250 sheep, and, at the same time, keep up an increasing stock. The butcher purchases them on the spot at the rate of 10 to 20 rixdollars a head for the cattle, and from 2 to 2¼ for the sheep.

Suppose then each farmer to sell annually,

15 Head of cattle *a* 12 *r.d.* -	R. D. 180
220 Sheep *a* 2 *r.d.* - -	440
A waggon load of butter and soap 1200 pounds *a* 1*s.* - - -	300
Amount of his income	R. D. 920 0

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Amount of his income brought over		R. D. 920 0

Outgoings.

2 Waggons 800 *r.d.* Interest -	R. D. 48	
Clothing for 8 persons *a* 15 *r.d.* -	120	
Tea, sugar, tobacco, brandy - -	150	
Powder and shot - - -	20	
Rent to Government and stamp -	25	
Parochial assessments - -	8	
Contingencies, cattle to Hottentots, &c.	80	
Amount of Outgoings		R. D. 451 0
Yearly Savings		R. D. 469 0
		or £. 93 16 0

In what part of the world can even a respectable peasant do this? much less the commonest of all mankind, for such are the generality of the Cape boors. After quitting the ranks, or running away from his ship, he gets into a boor's family and marries. He begins the world without any property, the usual practice being that of the wife's friends giving him a certain number of cattle and sheep to manage, half the yearly produce of which he is to restore to the owner, as interest for the capital placed in his hands. He has most of the necessaries of life, except clothing, within himself; his work is done by Hottentots, which cost him nothing but meat, tobacco, and skins for their clothing. His house and

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his furniture, such as they are, he makes himself; and he has no occasion for implements of husbandry. The first luxury he purchases is a waggon, which, indeed, the wandering life he usually leads at setting out in the world, makes as necessary as a hut; and frequently serves all the purposes of one. A musquet and a small quantity of powder and lead will procure him as much game as his whole family can consume. The *springboks* are so plentiful on the borders of the colony, and so easily got at, that a farmer sends out his Hottentot to kill a couple of these deer with as much certainty as if he sent him among his flock of sheep. In a word, an African peasant of the lowest condition never knows want; and if he does not rise into affluence, the fault must be entirely his own.

REVENUES OF GOVERNMENT.

From what has already been stated, in the last section, it will appear, that the public burthens are not of that nature as to furnish any subject of complaint. In fact, the proportion of produce paid by the colonists for their protection is less than in most other countries. They are not required to pay any land-tax, window-tax, excise, or tax on any of the luxuries of life; they are exempt from poor-rates, and from any assessment towards the maintenance of the clergy. Except the tenth on grain and wine, brought into Cape Town, and a small Custom-house duty on foreign articles imported, the duties to which they are liable are, in a great measure, optional, being levied on their extreme passion for buying, selling, and transferring property. The stamp duty, the

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public vendue duty, the transfer duty on sale of immoveable estates, and the duty arising from the sales of buildings on loan-lands, are branches of the revenue mostly of this description.

The revenues of the colony are derived from the following sources, comprized under thirteen heads:

1. Land revenue, consisting in
   - Rents of Loan farms.
   - ——— Gratuity lands.
   - ——— Quit rents.
   - ——— Places taken by the month.
   - ——— Salt pans.
2. Duties on grain, wine, and spirits, levied at the barrier.
3. Transfer duty on sale of immoveable estates.
4. Duty arising from the sale of buildings on loan farms.
5. Public vendue duty.
6. Fees received in the Secretary's office.
7. Customs.
8. Port fees.
9. Postage of letters.
10. Seizures, fines, and penalties.
11. Licences to retail wine, beer, and spirituous liquors.
12. Interest of the capital lent out through the loan bank.
13. Duty arising from stamped paper.

1. The revenue arising from the soil has been sufficiently explained in describing the tenures of land; but, in addition to the articles therein explained, may be mentioned the rents of some salt water lakes in the Cape district let out to the highest

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bidder for the purpose of collecting the salt formed in them during the summer season; as also some trifling rents of places for grazing cattle at certain seasons of the year, taken by the month.

2. The duties levied on grain, wine, and brandy at the barrier are as follows:

	Rd.	sk.	st.		s.	d.
For 10 muids of wheat	2	6	··	or	11	4
— 10 muids of barley	1	2	4		5	4
— 10 muids of peas	4	0	0		16	0
— 10 muids of beans	5	0	0		20	0

On wine and brandy the duty is exactly the same, being 3 rixdollars for every legger, let the price or quality be what they may. This duty amounts to about 5 per cent. on common wine, and not to ½ per cent. on Constantia.

3. The transfer duty on the sale of immoveable estates is 4 per cent. on the purchase money, which must be paid to the receiver of the land revenues before a legal deed of conveyance can be passed, or, at least, before a sufficient title can be given to the estate.

4. The duty arising from the sale of buildings, plantations, and other conveniencies on loan-lands, is 2½ per cent. on the purchase money, and must be paid in the same manner as the last, on the property being transferred from the seller to the purchaser.

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5. The duty on public vendues is 5 per cent. on moveable, and 2 per cent. on immoveable property; of the former, Government receives 5¼ per cent. and 1¼ per cent. of the latter. This is a very important branch of revenue.

6. Fees received in the Secretary's office are such as are paid on registering the transfer of property, and were formerly part of the emoluments of the colonial Secretary and assistants. They are very trifling.

7. The import and export duties at the Cape were formerly a perquisite of the Fiscal. At the surrender of the colony it was found expedient to make some new regulations with regard to this branch of revenue. All goods shipped in the British dominions, to the westward of the Cape, were allowed to be imported duty free; but others, not so shipped, were liable to a duty of 5 per cent. if brought in British bottoms, and 10 per cent. in foreign bottoms. And no goods nor merchandize of the growth, produce, or manufacture of countries to the eastward of the Cape were allowed to be imported into, or exported from, the Cape of Good Hope, except as sea-stores, but by the East India Company, or by their licence.

The export duties vary according to the nature of the articles, but, on a general average, they amount to about 5 per cent. on commodities, the growth and produce of the Cape.

8. The port fees, or wharfage and harbour money, were formerly levied at a fixed sum on all ships dropping anchor at the Cape, whether they were large or small, but

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were afterwards altered to sixpence per ton upon their registered tonnage.

9. The postage of letters was a small charge made on the delivery of letters at the post office, more with a view to prevent improper correspondence during the war, than to raise a revenue, which, indeed, amounted to a mere trifle.

10. Seizures, fines, and penalties. The law respecting smuggling is very rigid at the Cape of Good Hope. Not only the actual shipping or landing of contraband goods is punishable, but the *attempt* to do it, if proved, is equally liable; and the penalty is confiscation of the goods, when found, together with a mulct amounting to three times their value; or, if not found, on sufficient evidence being produced, the delinquent is liable to forfeit four times their value. Of all seizures and confiscations, and penalties for misdemeanors, the Fiscal receives one-third of the amount, the informer or prosecutor one-third, and the other third, which was formerly the share of the Governor, was directed by Lord Macartney to be always paid into the Government Treasury in aid of the revenue.

11. The licences granted for the retailing of wine, beer, and spirituous liquors, are farmed out in lots to the highest bidders; and they produce a very considerable sum to Government, proportioned, however, to the strength of the garrison, the soldiers being their best customers. Sir James Craig, wishing to discourage, as much as possible, all monopolies, proposed to divide the retailing of wine among thirty-two persons, but fifteen only were found to take them out; and these the following

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year refusing to renew, it became necessary to recur to the old method, to prevent the revenue from suffering, as well as the disorders that might be supposed to arise from an unrestrained liberty of sale. It was, however, found difficult to get any one after this to undertake the farm on the most moderate terms. Such is often the effect of making sudden and violent changes, even where abuses are meant to be reformed, and a certain benefit procured for those who have long been suffering under them. Gradual alterations are usually the most acceptable, and, in the end, most effectual.

12. Interest of the capital lent out through the loan or Lombard bank arises from a sum of paper money issued by the Dutch Government as a loan to individuals, on mortgage of their lands and houses, with the additional security of two sufficient bondsmen. The sum thus lent out is about 660,000 rixdollars. The interest is 5 per cent., which is one per cent. less than the legal interest of the colony. Government receives a clear profit of 4 per cent., and the bank one per cent. for its trouble. The rule is never to lend a greater sum than half the value upon estates in town, nor more than two-thirds on estates in the country. The term for which the loan was made was not to exceed two years, and it rested with the directors to prolong the loan, or to call it in, at the expiration of that time.

The establishment of this bank, by the Dutch East India Company, was one of the many symptoms, that of late years had appeared, of the declining condition of their commercial

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credit, and of their political influence in their Indian possessions. Driven to the necessity of raising revenues, by direct or indirect means, to defray the contingent expences of the year and to keep together their numerous establishments, and of maintaining their existence by temporary expedients, their finances were reduced at length to such a state, that their capital was employed to pay the interest of their debt. In order, therefore, to reform some abuses, and for the better regulation of their affairs in India, certain commissioners were appointed in 1792, under the name of Commissaries General, to proceed from Holland, without delay, upon this important office.

Finding, on their arrival at the Cape, that the resources of Government were nearly exhausted, the colony in most deplorable circumstances, and a general complaint among the inhabitants of the want of a circulating medium, they conceived it too favorable an occasion to let slip of converting the public distress into a temporary profit for the state; increasing, at the same time, the revenue of the latter, while they conferred a seeming favor on the former. They issued, through the Lombard bank, a loan of such sums of stamped paper money as might be required to satisfy the wants of those who could give the necessary securities; the whole amount being limited to the sum of one million rixdollars.

Thus, by this transaction, Government created for itself a net revenue of about 25,000 rixdollars a year, free of all deductions, without risk and without trouble, from a fictitious

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capital. It did more than this. Part of the original capital, which, at its highest point was about 680,000 rixdollars, was repaid by the inhabitants, and restored to Government; but, instead of cancelling such sums, as it should seem in honor bound to do, it applied them towards the payment of the public expences, suffering the whole of the original capital to continue in circulation.

The operation of such a loan, from the Government to the subject, so much the reverse of what generally takes place in other states, might be supposed to produce on the minds of the people a disposition of ill-will towards the Government; which, indeed, was assigned as one of the motives to shake off their dependence, and thus free themselves at once from a load of debt by the destruction of the creditor. These short-sighted people did not reflect that the whole amount of paper money issued through the bank was not half the amount of paper currency in circulation; that a much greater sum, of the same fabric, but made on a different occasion, had been borrowed by Government from the inhabitants, for which the only security was its credit and stability. The consequence of Suffrein's visit to the Cape, and the expences of throwing up the lines, and putting the works in repair, obliged the Dutch to borrow plate and silver money from the inhabitants for the exigencies of Government, which was promised to be repaid on the arrival of the ships then expected from Holland; and, in the mean time, stamped paper, in pieces bearing different values, was given and thrown into

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circulation, none of which has ever been redeemed by specie, nor, in all human probability, ever will. The balance of the paper lent by Government, and of the money borrowed from the people, is about 240,000 rixdollars in favor of the latter, so that they would gain little by destroying the credit of Government.

13. The duty arising from stamped paper was early introduced, but limited to such public writings as were issued from the offices of the Secretary of Government and of the Court of Justice; and for acts signed by public notaries, until the arrival of the Commissaries General, when it was considerably extended. At present all bills of sale, receipts, petitions, and memorials, must be made out on stamped paper. The limits of the stamps are sixpence the lowest, and one hundred rixdollars, or twenty pounds, the highest.

The net proceeds of the colonial revenue for four successive years will appear from the following table:

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Branches of the Public Revenue.	Year 1798.			Year 1799.			Year 1800.			Year 1801.		
	Rd.	*sk.*	*st.*	*Rd.*	*sk.*	*st.*	*Rd.*	*sk.*	*st.*	*Rd.*	*sk.*	*st.*
1. Land Revenue	60,622	6	2	40,720	6	4	43,396	2	4	47,885	6	4
2. Duties on grain and wine levied at the barrier	36,867	6	0	35,164	2	4	31,930	1	3	37,759	3	0
3. Transfer duty on sales of immovable estates	33,211	4	2	66,843	3	3	45,576	1	3	67,483	7	0
4. Duty arising from sale of buildings on loan estates	5,441	5	4	5,677	1	3	5,939	1	3	5,247	5	1
5. Public vendue duty	48,182	3	3	59,916	1	2	61,166	3	0	85,960	2	4
6. Fees received in the Secretary's Office	1,654	0	0	1,365	6	0	1,193	3	0	1,312	7	0
7. Customs	43,331	4	0	42,828	5	0	38,582	4	0	47,833	1	0
8. Port fees	2,186	2	0	2,100	0	0	3,945	4	0	5,498	0	0
9. Postage of letters	641	5	0	950	0	0	1,111	7	0	1,396	6	0
10. Seizures, fines, and penalties	10,182	0	1	7,585	0	3	26,572	0	0	5,533	3	0
11. Licences to retail wine, beer, and spirituous liquors	36,255	0	4	51,133	2	4	65,191	5	2	93,200	0	0
12. Interest of the capital lent out through the loan bank	25,532	6	1	25,678	4	1	26,240	2	3	25,957	0	1
13. Duty arising from stamped paper	18,403	4	0	20,348	6	0	18,751	0	0	25,645	1	0
Amount R. D.	322,512	7	5	360,312	0	0	369,596	4	0	450,713	2	4
or £.	64,502	11	11	72,062	8	0	73,919	6	0	90,142	13	4

These sums were applied to the payment of salaries on the civil establishment, the expences of the several departments, the repairs of Government buildings, and the contingencies and extraordinaries of the colony, to all which, by a prudent economy, they were much more than adequate; for, on closing the public accounts the year after the departure of Lord Macartney from his government, there was a balance in the Treasury, amounting to between two and three hundred thousand rixdollars, after every expence of the year had been liquidated.

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JURISPRUDENCE.

The constitution and the practice of the Court of Justice at the Cape are ill suited to the sentiments of Englishmen, yet, as their continuance was stipulated for in the articles of capitulation, they remained of course unaltered. The civil servants of the Dutch East India Company composed two-thirds of its members, and one-third was chosen from the burghers of the town. The Company, as proprietors of the settlement, directed their servants to take the ascendancy in all colonial affairs, but by way of reconciling the free citizens, not in their employ, a certain proportion were admitted into the civil courts and public boards; but, as might be supposed, the propositions and opinions of the former were generally found to preponderate. None of the members of the Court of Justice were professional men; nor were they supposed to possess a greater share of legal knowledge than the other citizens out of which they were chosen. The Fiscal and the Secretary were the interpreters of the law. The members might be considered as a kind of special jury, who, after hearing the evidence, decided on the facts by a majority of voices. As members, composing a Court of Judicature, they had no salaries under the Dutch government, and therefore were supposed not to reject presents from one or both of the parties who had suits before the Court. But although they had no special salaries, most of them either actually enjoyed other employments attended with profit, or were considered as entitled to succeed to them on vacancies, in recompence for their services as ministers of justice. And

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as the situation, though honorable and conferring a distinction of rank, was attended with a considerable share of trouble and some expence, and as their lucrative offices, on the surrender of the settlement to the English, in a great measure ceased, it seemed but reasonable that so important a duty should be compensated by an allowance from Government, which was accordingly made to them by Lord Macartney.

One part of their practice was particularly repugnant to the feelings of Englishmen and to the principles of English jurisprudence. The proceedings of the Court were always carried on, *foribus clausis*, with closed doors, except in the single instance of the trial of the boors for sedition, on which occasion the Fiscal or Attorney General determined, though contrary to all precedent, to throw open, for the first time, the doors of the Hall of Justice. No oral pleading is admitted by the Dutch law; no confronting the accused with the witnesses; but the depositions of each are singly taken down before two commissioners, on oath, and afterwards read to the Court; all persons are excluded from entering the Court except the parties concerned. In all criminal causes the Fiscal, or Attorney-General, directed two commissioners of the Court to examine evidences, take depositions, hold inquests over bodies that had died suddenly by the visitation of God, accident, or violence; and to draw up, in every case, preparatory information for the trial. For this troublesome part of their duty they had no remuneration, unless when the delinquent should be condemned to labor for the service of government, in which case the expences of the trial were paid out of the produce of that labor.

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The constitution and the practice of such a court gave but too strong grounds for supposing that justice was not always administered with strict impartiality. The cause of a foreigner was always indeed considered as hopeless. If in some few instances they may have leaned to the side of their countrymen, where the dispute respected property, yet I am inclined to believe that in all criminal cases they have acted, not only with impartiality, but with the greatest caution and circumspection. I do not here mean to include that unfortunate race of men who are doomed to slavery: the measure of justice was dealt out to these poor creatures with as sparing a hand at the Cape as in most other countries where the negro is scarcely considered to rank among human beings. If a slave should unfortunately lift his hand against a white man, he runs the greatest risk of being tortured and torn in pieces, it being always presumed, on such an event, that the intention was to murder; but if a white man should actually murder his own slave, little, if any, inquiry is made into the circumstances of the case; and if he should put to death the slave of another man, he has only to settle with the owner for the value he put upon him; unless indeed the owner, from principle or from pique, should bring the matter before the Court of Justice, a case which I fancy has rarely, if ever, happened.

Two irreproachable and concurring witnesses are required to substantiate a fact against a person accused of a capital crime; and *one* evidence of good character, produced on the part of a person accused of felony, is considered of equal weight with *two* produced against him: and even after sentence has been passed, until the moment of execution, the condemned is allowed to bring forward evidence in his favor. Nor can

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circumstantial evidence, however strong, warrant the carrying of any sentence into execution, until a free confession be made of the crime. Such confession, it is true, was, under the Dutch government, sometimes extorted by the application of the torture; in which case, if the guilty had nerve enough, he was sure to escape, and if the innocent was feeble, he was equally sure of being hanged.

Even in civil causes, the presumption that the Court was generally right is in its favor; for since the establishment of an English Court of Appeal in the year 1797, to the evacuation of the colony, out of the number of cases brought before the said Court of Appeal, only one sentence was reversed; and it appeared that the error committed, in this instance, by the Court of Justice was owing to their tenacity rather to the letter, than to the spirit of the law; and that by rigidly adhering to the *summum jus*, their decision was productive of the *summa injuria*. It was also supposed that, in the case alluded to, a very undue influence was employed to sway the Court. Neither are the members of the Court of Justice in the Cape so wanting in talent or in legal knowledge as might be supposed; at least, they proved to the world that they had sagacity enough to detect, and integrity and firmness enough to punish, the authors of a most nefarious and barefaced transaction, which those persons had contrived to carry through the Court of Vice-Admiralty with complete success, though the imposition was of the grossest nature.

Capital crimes in the Cape district are less frequent than they might be supposed among such a mixed multitude,

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where a great majority have no interest in the public prosperity or tranquillity. The strength of the garrison contributed materially to keep the slaves in order; and instances of capital crimes were less numerous under the British Government than in any former period of the same duration for the last thirty years. In six years 63 were sentenced to suffer death, of which 30 were publicly executed, and the rest condemned to work at the fortifications in chains for life. The sentence of such as escaped execution was not changed on account of any palliative circumstance or insufficient testimony, but because confession of the crime is indispensably necessary to the execution of the sentence; and this confession being now no longer extorted by the application of the torture, most of them persist to deny the crime of which they are accused; preferring a life of hard labor, with a diet of bread and water, to an untimely death. But though the rack and torture were by the Dutch laws allowed to be put in practice, in order to extort the confession of crimes, and breaking on the wheel was a common sentence of the law, yet the Court of Justice at the Cape pretended to say that these expedients were rarely resorted to; but, at the same time, on their abolition by command of his Majesty, they strenuously urged the necessity of their continuance, as proper engines of terror for preventing the commission of capital crimes, which, they thought, simple strangling with a cord would be insufficient to effect. Contrary, however, to the opinion of the Court of Justice, there were fewer executions, after the abolition of the rack and torture, than had taken place in an equal period for many years before: so much so, indeed, that one of the public executioners made

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an application for a pension in lieu of the emoluments he used to receive for the breaking of legs and arms. The fate of the other hangman was singular enough: On hearing that the abolition of the rack and torture was likely to take place, he waited upon the chief magistrate to know from him whether it was the fashion among the English to break on the wheel. A few days after this he was found hanging in his room. It was thought that the fear of starving, for want of employment, on account of his having held such an odious office, had operated so powerfully on his mind as to have led him to the perpetration of self-murder. Under the idea of conveying terror into the minds of the multitude, the place of execution is erected close to the side of the great avenue leading into the town. The first object that presents itself to a stranger, after passing the Castle, is a large gallows flanked by wheels and engines of death—objects not well adapted for impressing any very favorable opinion either of the humanity of the people or the lenity of their laws. Though the custom of most European nations may have sanctioned public punishments, as warnings against the commission of crimes, the constant exposure of the instruments of death can have little share in producing this effect. The human mind, by long habit, becomes reconciled to objects that, for a time, might have created disgust and dismay; and nothing is more likely to happen than that the unreflecting part of the multitude should turn into a source of ridicule, when made too familiar to them, what was intended to convey the sensation of terror.

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Two of the members of the Court form in turn a monthly commission, before which written evidence is produced by the attornies of the parties, and every information collected against the full meeting of the Court, which is held once a fortnight. In the intervening time all the written evidence and other attested documents that relate to each case are read by the several members. Were this not practised, so great is the litigious disposition of the people, they would not be able to go through the ordinary business. Forty or fifty causes are sometimes dispatched in the Court in the course of one morning; and they hear none where the damages are not laid at a greater sum than 200 rix dollars or 40*l.* All suits, under this amount, are decided in an inferior Court called the *Court of Commissaries for trying petty causes*: in the country districts the Landrost and Hemraaden are empowered to give judgment in all cases where the damages to be recovered do not exceed 150 rix dollars or 30*l.*

This litigious spirit in the people, who are mostly related one way or another, and who always address each other by the name of *cousin*, is encouraged by the attornies, who, in the Cape, may truly be called a nest of vermin fattening on the folly of the people. To become a *procureur* it is by no means necessary to study the law. Hence any bankrupt shopkeeper, or reduced officer, or clerk in any of the departments, may set up for an attorney. The business consists in taking down depositions in writing, and drawing up a state of the case for the examination of the monthly commissioners, and afterwards to be laid before the full Court. As their

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charges, in some degree, depend upon the quantity of paper written, such papers are generally pretty voluminous. The expences of a single suit will sometimes amount to 400*l.* or 500*l.* sterling, when, at the same time, the object of litigation was not worth 100*l.*

The office of Fiscal is one of the most important in the colony. As public accuser it is his duty to prosecute, in the Court of Justice, all high crimes and misdemeanors; and as Solicitor-General to the Crown he is to act in all cases where the interest of Government is concerned. As Chief Magistrate of the police, both within and without the town, he is authorised to inflict corporal punishment on slaves, Hottentots, and others, not being burghers, for petty offences, riotous behaviour, or other acts that cannot be considered as directly criminal. The Fiscal has also the power of imposing fines, and of accepting pecuniary composition for misdemeanors, insults, breach of contract in cases where the offender does not wish to risk a public trial. The sum, however, that in cases of compromise can be demanded by the Fiscal, was limited, under the British Government, to 200 rix dollars. For it appeared that, under former Fiscals, many and enormous abuses had been practised in the levying of fines, particularly in cases where the nature of the offence was such that the accused chose rather to pay a large sum of money than suffer his cause to be investigated before a full court. The Fiscal, being entitled to one-third of all such penalties, took care to lay them as heavy as he thought the cases would bear. What a temptation was here laid for frail mortal man,

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in his fiscal capacity to be guilty of injustice and extortion, by leaving the power of fixing the penalty in the breast of the very man who was to reap the benefit of it! To the honor of the man be it spoken, who held this important but odious situation, during the British government at the Cape, his most inveterate enemies, and he and every one who fills the office must daily make such, never accused him either of making an undue use of his authority, or of studying his own interest in this respect. The English found him poor, and left him so, but not without making some though not perhaps an adequate acknowledgment of his services.

The office of Fiscal consisted of the principal and a deputy, a clerk, two bailiffs, two jailors, eight constables, and nineteen blacks and Malays, usually called Kaffers. The whole expence to Government was under 10,000 rix dollars; the Court of Justice and Secretary's Office to the Court was about the same sum, so that the administration of justice cost the Government about 4000*l.* sterling a year.

The Court of Commissaries for trying petty suits, and for matrimonial affairs, consists of a President, a Vice-president, and four members, whose situations are merely honorary, and are biennial. The duties of the Court, as the name implies, are divided into two distinct classes: first, to decide in suits where the sum in litigation does not exceed 40*l.*; and secondly, to grant licences of marriage where, on examination of the parties, there appears to be no legal impediment.

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In its first capacity it may be considered as a sort of Court of Conscience. The proneness of the people to litigation made it necessary, notwithstanding the scanty population, to establish this as a relief to the Superior Court, by taking off its hands the decision of a multiplicity of trifling suits, as well as, by a summary mode of proceeding, to prevent heavy costs. The process for the recovery of a debt is very simple. A summons is sent from the Secretary to the debtor, forty-eight hours before the meeting of the Court, which is on every Saturday. The parties are heard, a decision taken, and sentence pronounced. An appeal lies to the Superior Court.

In order to obtain a licence for marriage, it is necessary for both persons to appear personally before the Court, to answer to such questions as may be put to them concerning their age, the consent of parents or guardians, their relationship, and such like; after which a certificate is given, and the banns are published thrice in the church. The consent of parents or guardians is necessary to be had by all who marry under the age of twenty-five years. If the consent of parents or guardians be refused to a minor, the removal of the objections is left to the discretion of the Court. If either of the parties has been married before, and has children, a certificate must be produced from the Secretary of the Orphan Chamber, or from the notary appointed to administer to the affairs of the children, that the laws of the colony relating to inheritance have been duly complied with.

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The *Weeskammer*, or chamber for managing the effects of minors and orphans, is one of the original institutions of the colony, and is modelled on those establishments of a similar kind that are found in every city and town of the Mother Country. The nature of their laws of inheritance pointed out the expediency of public guardians to protect and manage the property of those who, during their minority, should be left in an orphan state. In this instance the Dutch have departed from the civil or Roman law on which their system of jurisprudence is chiefly grounded. By their laws of property the estates and moveables of two persons entering into wedlock become a joint stock, of which each party has an equal participation; and, on the death of either, the children are entitled to that half of the joint property which belonged to the deceased, unless it may have been otherwise disposed of by will; and here the legislature has wisely interfered to allow of such disposal only under certain restrictions and limitations. The Dutch laws, regarding property, are more inclinable to the interests of the children, than favorable to the extension of parental authority. To enable a man to disinherit a child, he must bring proof of his having committed one, at least, of the crimes of children against parents, which are enumerated in the Justinian code.

To guard against abuses in the management of the provision which the law has made for minors and orphans, and to secure the property to which they are entitled, are the duties of the Orphan Chamber. Its authority extends also to the administration of the effects, either of natives or strangers,

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who may die intestate. At the decease of either parent, where there are children, an account of the joint property is taken by the Chamber, and in the event of the survivor intending to marry a second time, such survivor must pass a bond to secure the half share of the deceased to the children by the former marriage.

This excellent institution is managed by a president and four members, a secretary, and several clerks. Their emoluments arise from a per centage of 2½ on the amount of all property that comes under their administration, and from sums of money accruing from the interest of unclaimed property, and the compound interest arising from the unexpended incomes of orphans during their minority. The Secretary, in addition to a fixed salary, has an allowance of 4 per cent. on the sale of orphan property, which almost always takes place in order to make a just distribution among the children. This is considered as an indemnification for his responsibility to the board for the payment of the property sold. The clerks divide among them one per cent., so that all orphan property, passing through the Chamber, suffers a reduction of 7½ per cent. upon the capital, which is 2½ per cent. less than when left to the administration of private executors, who have 5 per cent. for their trouble, and must pay 5 per cent. to government on the public vendue, from which the Orphan Chamber is exempt.

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RELIGION.

Calvinism or the Reformed Church, as it has usually been called, is the established religion of the colony. Other sects were tolerated, but they were neither countenanced, nor paid, nor preferred by the Dutch. The Germans, who are equally numerous with the Dutch, and mostly Lutherans, had great difficulty in obtaining permission to build a church, in which, however, they at length succeeded; but they were neither suffered to erect a steeple nor to hang a bell. A Methodist chapel has also lately been built; and the Moravians have a church in the country; but the Malay Mahomedans, not being able to obtain permission to build a mosque, perform their public service in the stone quarries at the head of the town. Other sects have not yet found themselves sufficiently numerous or opulent to form a community.

The body of the clergy are in no part of the world more suitably provided for, or more generally respected, than in this country; a consequence which may be attributed to their being supported entirely by Government, and not by any tax or tythe laid upon the public. Their situation, it is true, leads not to affluence, but it places them beyond the apprehension of want or pecuniary embarrassments; and it secures to their widows a subsistence for life. The salaries and the emoluments, which all of them enjoy, both in the town and the country districts, are nearly on an equality. By their rank, which is next to that of the President of the Court of Justice in town, and of the Landrost in the country, they are

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entitled to seek connections with the first and wealthiest families in the colony. None would think of refusing his daughter's hand to the solicitations of a clergyman; and the lady usually considered the precedence at church as a full compensation for the loss of balls, cards, and other amusements which her new situation obliged her to relinquish. Some changes, however, of such sentiments were said to have taken place, on the part of the ladies, with the change of their former Government, and that whatever might still be the opinion of the parents, they began to doubt whether the easy and unrestrained gaiety of a red coat might not be equally productive of happiness with the gravity of a black one.

But the introduction of new manners and new sentiments produced no direliction in the pious deportment of the clergy and their families; nor was there any change in the exterior marks of devotion among the laity. The former are scrupulously exact in the observance of the several duties of their office, and the latter equally so in their attendance of public worship. In the country the boors carry their devotion to an excess of inconvenience that looks very like hypocrisy. From some parts of the colony it requires a journey of a week or ten days to go to the nearest church, yet the whole family seldom fails in its attendance twice or thrice in a year.

The duties of the clergy are not very laborious, though pretty much the same as in Europe. They attend church twice on Sundays, visit the sick when sent for, and bestow

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one morning in the week to examine young persons in the confession of faith. They must also compose their sermon for Sunday, and learn it by heart. Their congregation would have little respect for their talents if it was read to them, though of their own composing. Nothing will do in a Dutch church but an extemporary rant; and they all go to church in expectation of some glance being made at the prevailing topic of the day, and return satisfied or displeased according as the preacher has coincided with or opposed their sentiments on the subject of his discourse.

The clergy have also the direction of the funds raised for the relief of the poor. These funds are established from weekly donations, made by all such as attend divine service, from legacies, and from the sums demanded by the church on the emancipation of slaves. The interest is applied towards the succour and support of those whom old age, infirmities, accicent, or the common misfortunes of life, may have rendered incapable of assisting themselves. This class is not very numerous in the Cape, and is composed mostly of such as have been denied, in their early days, the means of making any provision against old age; chiefly emancipated slaves, the best part of whose life has been dedicated entirely to the service of their owners.

An unsuccessful attempt was made some years ago to establish a public grammar-school at the Cape, and the clergymen were nominated as *curators*. A fund for this purpose was intended to be raised by subscription, and every one was ready to put down his name, but very few came forwards with the

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money. After the purchase of a suitable house, they found there was nothing left to afford even a moderate salary for a Latin master; and the clergy of the Cape, who are the only fit persons to take upon them the important task of instructing youth, are already too well provided for by Government to engage in so laborious an employ.

The amount of the funds belonging to the Reformed Church in Cape Town, in the year 1798, was, Rd. 110,842 1 2 or 22,168*l.* 8*s.* 8*d.*, and the subsistence granted to the poor was Rd. 5564 2 or 1112*l.* 17*s.* The funds of the Lutheran Church were Rd. 74,148 2 2 or 14,829*l.* 13*s.* 2*d.*, and the relief granted to the poor Rd. 972 2 2 or 194*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.*

IMPROVEMENTS SUGGESTED.

Before any considerable degree of improvement can be expected in those parts of the country, not very distant from the Cape, it will be necessary, by some means or other, to increase the quantity and to reduce the present enormous price of labor. The first step towards the attainment of these objects is the complete prohibition of the importation of slaves under any pretext whatsoever; for, until such a measure shall be adopted, the increase of the price of labor is sure to keep pace with the encreased population. The number of slaves that are already in the colony, and the number of Hottentots unemployed for want of due encouragement, render any importations of the former wholly unnecessary. But supposing the demand for labor was greater than they could supply, a

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very trifling encouragement would draw into the colony as many Chinese as it might be thought prudent to admit. Were ten thousand of this industrious race of men distributed over the Cape district, and those divisions of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein which lie on the Cape side of the mountains, the face of the country would exhibit a very different appearance from that it now wears, in the course of a few years; the markets would be better and more reasonably supplied, and an abundance of surplus produce acquired for exportation. It is not here meant that these Chinese should be placed under the farmers; a situation in which they might probably become, like the poor Hottentots, rather a load and an encumbrance on the colony, than a benefit to it. The poorest peasant in China, if a free man, acquires notions of property. After paying a certain proportion of his produce to the State, which is limited and defined, the rest is entirely his own; and though the Emperor is considered as the sole proprietary of the soil, the land is never taken from him so long as he continues to pay his proportion of produce to Government.

I should propose then, that all the pieces of ground intervening between the large loan farms, which in many places are equal in extent to the farms themselves, and other unoccupied lands, should be granted to these Chinese on payment of a moderate rent after the first seven years, during which period they should hold them free. The British Government would find no difficulty in prevailing upon that, or a greater, number of these people to leave China; nor is the Government of that country so very strict or solicitous in preventing its subjects from leaving their native land as is usually sup-

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posed. The maxims of the State forbad it at a time when it was more politic to prevent emigrations than now, when an abundant population, occasionally above the level of the means of subsistence, subjects thousands to perish at home for want of the necessaries of life. Emigrations take place every year to Manilla, Batavia, Prince of Wales's Island, and to other parts of the eastern world.

In the more distant parts of the colony, where the land is not only better, but large tracts occur that are wholly unoccupied, it would be adviseable to hold out the same sort of encouragement to the Hottentots as they have met with from the Hernhüters at Bavian's Kloof; a measure that would be equally beneficial to the boor and the Hottentot, and put a stop to the many atrocious murders and horrid cruelties which are a disgrace to humanity.

The next step to improvement would be to oblige all the Dutch landholders to enclose their estates, agreeably to the original plans which are deposited in the Secretary's Office. By planting hedge rows and trees, the grounds would not only be better sheltered, but the additional quantity of moisture that would be attracted from the air, would prevent the surface from being so much scorched in the summer months. The almond, as I have observed, grows rapidly in the driest and poorest soils, and so does the pomegranate, both of which would serve for hedges. The lemon-tree, planted thick, makes a profitable as well as an extremely beautiful and excellent hedge, but it requires to be planted on ground that is rather moist. The *keurboom* or *sophora capensis* grows in

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hard dry soils, as will also two or three of the larger kind of proteas. The planting of trees and hedge rows would furnish a supply of wood for fuel, and other useful purposes, which is at present extremely scarce and exorbitantly dear. Avenues of oak trees, plantations of the white poplar, and of the stone pine, are to be seen near most of the country houses not very distant from the Cape, and have been found to thrive most rapidly. It is true, the timber they produce is generally shaken and unsound; but the oak which has been introduced into the colony appears to be that variety of the *Quercus Robur* known in England by the name of *Durmast* oak, much of which grows in the New Forest, and is but of little estimation among ship-builders. It is distinguished by the acorns growing in clusters, and each having a long foot stalk. The larch, whose growth in Europe is rapid, and yet the timber as good or better than any of the pine tribe, would be an acquisition and an ornament to the present naked hills of the Cape; and the beech would no doubt thrive in those places where the poplar does so well.

There can be little doubt but a great variety of exotic plants might be introduced with success into the colony. The tea-shrub, for instance, is already in the colony, and seems to thrive equally well as in China; it is a hardy plant, and easily propagated, and the soil, the climate, and general face of Southern Africa, bear a strong analogy to those provinces of China to which it is indigenous. Three years ago a small coffee plant was brought from the island of Bourbon, and is now in full berry, and promises to succeed remarkably well; the sugar cane equally so. The dwarf mulberry seems to

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thrive here quite as well as in China; but the common silk-worm is not in the colony. Several species of wild moths, however, spin their coccoons among the shrubby plants of Africa. Among these there is one species, nearly as large as the Atlas, which answers to the description of the *Paphia* of Fabricius, whose food is the leaves of the *Protea Argentea*, the witteboom or silver tree of the Dutch; this worm might probably by cultivation be turned to some account. Dr. Roxburgh is of opinion that it is precisely the same insect which spins the strong silk known in India by the name of Tussach. The palma christi, from the seed of which is expressed the castor oil, and the aloe, whose juice produces the well known drug of that name, are natives of the country, and are met with of spontaneous growth in the greatest plenty in every part of the colony; which is also the case with the cape olive, so like in habit and appearance to the cultivated plant of Europe, that there can be little doubt as to the success of the latter if once introduced. It is the more surprizing that the cultivated olive has not found its way hither, since no vegetable oil, fit for culinary uses, is produced in the colony. The *Sesamum Orientale*, to which I gave a fair trial, promised to do well on moist soils, but could not be cultivated with success as an article of general produce. As green food for cattle, I had an opportunity of trying four species of millet of the genus *Holcus*, namely, the *Sorghum*, the *Saccharatus*, the *Spicatus*, and *Bicolor*. All of these, except the *spicatus*, were cut down several times in the same season, afterwards grew to the height of six to ten feet, bore a plentiful crop of seed, sprung up afresh from the old stumps in the winter, furnishing most excellent food for cows and horses throughout the whole year. A species of Indian Lucerne, the *Medicago esculenta*, I culti-

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vated with equal success, giving, after being twice cut down, a plentiful crop of seed. A small kidney bean, the *Phaseolus lobatus*, grew very rapidly, producing two crops in one season; this is an excellent species of food for cattle, whether given to them green or dried into hay, which is the case also with the lucerne. A strong tall dog's-tail-grass, the *Cynosurus coracanus* of India, affording a wholesome food for man and beast, after being cut down twice, produced a crop of seed. Of this species of grass horses are extravagantly fond, and it will remain green nearly through the winter. The culture of all these would be of the greatest importance to the welfare of the colony. Nothing is so much wanted as green food for the cattle in the summer months when every kind of herbage is burnt up and disappears. The Cape might also be rendered valuable to the state on which it may be dependent, by the cultivation of the different kinds of hemp for cordage and canvass, and which might be carried on to an unlimited extent. The *Cannabis sativa*, or common hemp, has been long planted here as a substitute for tobacco, but its cultivation was never attempted for other purposes. It grows in the shape of a branching shrub, losing entirely that habit of springing up in a single stem as it always appears in Europe; which is no doubt owing to its being planted singly. When sown thick on the ground as in Europe, it is said to shoot up exactly in the same manner, ascending to about the height of eight feet, and giving to all appearance a fibre of equal strength and tenacity to that where it is usually cultivated; and it requires very little trouble in keeping clean on the ground. The different plants of India, cultivated there for the purposes of hemp, have been found to grow at the Cape fully as well as in their native soil. Of these the most com-

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mon are the *Robinia cannabina*, affording a fibre that is durable under water, and on that account used in the east for fishing-nets and tackle. The Jute of India, *Corchorus olitorius*, thrives very well, as does also the *Hibiscus cannabinus*, whose leaves, of a delicate subacid taste, serve as a sallad for the table, and the fibres of the stem as a flax fit for the manufacture of cordage. A native species of hibiscus which I brought from the vicinity of Plettenberg's bay yields a hemp of an excellent quality, perhaps little inferior to that of the cannabis, or common hemp, which is most unquestionably the best material yet discovered for the manufacture of strong cordage. The *Janap* of India, *Crotularia juncea*, from which a strong coarse stuff is manufactured under the name of *Gunney*, seems to thrive very well in the climate of the Cape in sheltered situations; but its slender stem is unequal to the violence of the south-easterly gales of wind. Cotton and indigo may both be produced in any quantity in this colony; but the labor necessary in the preparation of the latter, and the enormous price of slaves, or the hire of free workmen, would scarcely be repaid to the cultivator. That species of cotton plant called the *hirsutum* seems to sustain the south-east blasts of wind with the least degree of injury; but the Bourbon cotton, originally from the West Indies, has been found to thrive just as well in the interior parts of the country, where the south-easters extend not with that degree of strength so as to cause any injury to vegetation, as on the island from whence it takes its name. Many of the India and China fruits are produced in the colony, and others introduced since it came into our hands, seem to bid fair success. But the article of produce, which is best suited for the soil and the climate of the Cape,

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is unquestionably the vine, the culture and management of which are however very little understood.

The vineyards, instead of being pruned down to the ground, so that the bunches of grapes frequently rest upon it, should be led up props or espaliers, or trailed, as in Madeira, along the surface of lattice work. The strong Spanish reed that grows abundantly in the colony is well suited for this purpose, which would not only free the grapes from the peculiar earthy taste that is always communicated to the wine, but would cause the same extent of vineyard to produce more than double the quantity of grapes. A family or two from the island of Madeira, to instruct them in the process of making wine, would be of essential use to the colony.

A better system of the tillage of corn lands could not fail to be productive of a considerable increase in the returns of grain. The breed of horses has so much improved since the capture by the English, that these may soon be substituted for oxen in all the purposes of husbandry, and small English ploughs made to supersede their present unwieldy machines, requiring each from ten to sixteen oxen.

With respect to the country boors, it will require a long time before any effectual steps can be adopted for the improvement of their condition. Content with the possession of the mere necessaries of life, they seek for none of its comforts, which, however, are sufficiently within their reach. Their cattle alone, if any care were bestowed upon them, would procure for their families every convenience, and enable

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them to live with decency. One great step towards the bettering of the condition of these people, would be the establishment of fairs or markets at Algoa Bay, Plettenberg's Bay, Mossel Bay, and Saldanha Bay; to which, at certain fixed periods, once a month or quarter for instance, they might drive down their cattle, and bring their other articles of produce for sale.

This might immediately be effected by prohibiting the butchers from sending round their servants to collect cattle at the boors' houses; and by giving public notice of the times at which the markets would be held at the different places. At Algoa Bay a great variety of produce, besides sheep and horned cattle, might be exhibited together, not only from the boors, but also from the Kaffers and the Hottentots. These people would, no doubt, be very glad to give their ivory and skins of leopards and antelopes in exchange for iron, beads, and tobacco, and perhaps coarse cloths, provided they were allowed to take the advantage of a fair and open market. The honey that abounds in all the forests would be collected by the Hottentots and brought to the market at Plettenberg's Bay, where the great plenty of timber might also lead to a very extensive commerce, and furnish employment for numbers of this race of natives, who require only proper encouragement to become valuable members of society. An establishment of Moravian missionaries at this bay would prove of infinite benefit to the colony. It would be difficult to persuade the boor of this, and nothing would convince him of the truth of it, but the circumstance of his being able to procure as good a waggon for 150 or 200 rix dollars as he must now purchase at the rate of 400 dollars in Cape Town. There

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is not any part of this extensive settlement that is capable of such improvement as the country which is contiguous to Plettenberg's Bay, and I should hope that the British Government, when the colony is once permanently annexed to the Empire, as I am confident, sooner or later, must be the case, will adopt a plan similar to that which a single individual in Holland had in contemplation, and had actually taken measures to carry into execution, when the war breaking out, unfortunately put an end to the laudable undertaking. He obtained from the Dutch Government a grant of the whole district of Plettenberg's Bay, on condition of paying a certain annual rent. This district he meant to divide into one hundred portions, on each of which was to be placed an industrious family to be sent out from Europe, either Dutch or Germans, to be furnished with stock, utensils, implements of husbandry, and every article that was requisite for carrying on the useful trades, and to cultivate the soil; but they were not to be allowed to purchase or to employ a single slave. Every kind of labor was to be performed by themselves and by Hottentots, whom they were directed to encourage. How easily might a hundred industrious families be found in the United Kingdom, ready to embrace so favorable an opportunity of exercising their capital, their skill and activity, in so fine a climate, and so fertile a tract of country.

It would be no small advantage to the boors, who dwell some hundred miles from the sea-coast, to carry back in their waggons a quantity of salted fish, which might be prepared to any extent at all the bays; this article would not only furnish them with an agreeable variety to their present unremitting consumption of flesh meat three times a day, but would serve

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also, according to their own ideas, as a corrective to the superabundance of bile which the exclusive use of butchers' meat is supposed to engender. To cultivate the fisheries on the coast of Africa would afford the means of employment and an ample source of provision for a great number of Hottentot families.

At Mossel Bay, besides the fisheries, there are two articles, the natural produce of the country, in the collection and preparation of which the Hottentots might very advantageously be employed, both to themselves and to the community. These are aloes and barilla, the plant that produces the first growing in every part of the district that surrounds the bay, and that from the ashes of which the other is procured being equally abundant in the plain through which the Olifant River flows at no great distance from the bay. Here too the cultivation of grain and pulse might be greatly extended.

If the introduction of Chinese were effected, the markets of Cape Town and Saldanha Bay could not fail to be most abundantly supplied with wine, grain, pulse, fruit, and vegetables; probably to such a degree as not to be excelled in the world, either for price, quality, or quantity.

The consequence of such a system of establishing markets would be the immediate erection of villages at these places. To each village might be allowed a church, with a clergyman, who might act at the same time as village schoolmaster. The farmers' children put out to board would contribute to the speedy enlargement of the villages. The farmers would thus be excited to a sort of emulation, by seeing the produce of

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each other compared together, and prices offered for them proportionate to their quality, instead of their being delivered to the butcher, as they now are, good and bad together, at so much per head. The good effects produced by occasionally meeting in society would speedily be felt. The languor, the listlessness, and the heavy and vacant stare, that characterize the African peasant, would gradually wear off. The meeting together of the young people would promote the dance, the song, and gambols on the village green, now totally unknown; and cheerfulness and conversation would succeed to the present stupid lounging about the house, sullen silence, and torpid apathy. The acquaintance with new objects would beget new ideas, rousing the dormant powers of the mind to energy, and of the body to action. By degrees, as he became more civilized by social intercourse, humanity as well as his interest would teach him to give encouragement to the Hottentots in his employ to engage in useful labor, and to feel, like himself, the benefits arising from honest industry.

The establishment of villages in an extensive country thinly peopled, may be considered as the first step to a higher state of civilization. A town or a village, like the heart in the animal frame, collects, receives, and disperses the most valuable products of the country of which it is the centre, giving life and energy and activity by the constant circulation which it promotes. Whereas while men continue to be thinly scattered over a country, although they may have within their reach all the necessaries of life in a superfluity, they will have very few of its comforts or even of its most ordinary conveniencies. Without a mutual intercourse and assistance among

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men, life would be a constant succession of make-shifts and substitutions.

The good effects resulting from such measures are not to be expected as the work of a day, but they are such as might, in time, be brought about. It would not, however, be attended with much difficulty to bring the people closer together, and to furnish them with the means of suitable education for their children; to open them new markets for their produce, and, by frequent intercourse with one another, to make them feel the comforts and the conveniencies of social life. Whether the Dutch will be able to succeed in doing this, or whether they will give themselves the trouble of making the experiment, is doubtful, but when it shall again become a British settlement, these, or similar regulations, would be well deserving the attention of Government.

But, above all, the establishment of a proper public school in the capital, with masters from Europe qualified to undertake the different departments of literature, demands the first attention of the Government, whether it be Dutch or English. For as long as the fountain-head is suffered to remain troubled and muddy, the attempt would be vain to purify the streams that issue from it. It is painful to see so great a number of promising young men as are to be found in Cape Town, entirely ruined for want of a suitable education. The mind of a boy of fourteen cannot be supposed to remain in a state of inactivity, and if not employed in laying up a stock of useful knowledge, the chances are it will imbibe a taste for all the vices with which it is surrounded, and of which the catalogue in this colony is by no means deficient.

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CHAP. II.

Importance of the Cape of Good Hope considered as a Military Station.

When the Prince of Orange had departed from Holland, and the subsequent affairs of that nation had rendered it sufficiently obvious that the majority of the inhabitants of the United Provinces were inclined to adopt the revolutionary principles of France, it became a measure of precaution, in our government, to take immediate possession of the Dutch colonies. Among these the Cape of Good Hope claimed the earliest attention, being considered as a settlement of too great importance to be trusted in the hands of the Dutch colonists, although it was well known that the principal as well as the majority of the civil and military officers were indebted to their Prince for the situations they enjoyed in that colonial government.

An expedition was accordingly sent out to take possession of the Cape, not however in a hostile manner, but to hold it in security for, and in the name of, the Prince of Orange, who had furnished letters dated from London to that effect. But the misguided people of the colony, having received only imperfect accounts of affairs in Holland, and being led to expect a French force at the Cape, had already embraced the principles of Jacobinism, whose effects were the more to be

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dreaded on account of the consummate ignorance of the bulk of the settlers. Some French emissaries, those assiduous disturbers of the peace of mankind, who, snake-like, have crept into every society and corner of the world, poisoning the springs of harmony and good order, found little difficulty in urging a people, already so well disposed, to carry their new principles into practice. The few officers of government who were supposed to be attached to the cause of the Stadtholder, and friends to the old system, were completely subdued; and the weakness of the governor favored the views of the disorderly citizens. They became clamorous to declare themselves, by some public act, a free and independent republic; they prepared to plant the tree of liberty; and established a convention, whose first object was to make out proscribed lists of those who were either to suffer death by the new-fashioned mode of the guillotine, which they had taken care to provide for the purpose, or to be banished out of the colony. It is almost needless to state that the persons, so marked out to be the victims of an unruly rabble, were the only worthy people in the settlement, and most of them members of government.

The slaves, whose numbers of grown men, as I have before observed, are about five to one of male whites who have arrived at the age of maturity, had also *their* meetings to decide upon the fate of the free and independent burghers, when the happy days of their own emancipation should arrive, which, from the conversations of their masters on the blessings of liberty and equality, and the unalienable rights of

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man, they were encouraged to hope could not be very distant.

In this state of things the British fleet appeared before the bay. The governor called an extraordinary council to deliberate upon the steps to be taken in this critical juncture. Some were inclined to throw the settlement under the protection of the British flag, but the governor and the greater number, influenced, and perhaps intimidated, by the citizens, listened to the absurd proposals of resisting the English force and, if successful, as they doubted not they would be, of setting up immediately a free and independent republic of their own. They talked of the thousands and ten thousands of courageous boors who, on the signal of alarm being given, would flock to the Batavian standard; so ignorant were they of the nature and the number of their valiant countrymen. The *burgher cavalry*, a militia of country boors, who were then in the vicinity of the town, were immediately called out, and a few hundreds reluctantly obeyed the summons. The conduct and the cowardice of this undisciplined rabble, whose martial spirit had hitherto been tried only in their expeditions against the native Hottentots, might easily have been foreseen. A few shot from the America ship of war, striking the rocks of Muisenberg, soon cleared that important pass, and caused the regular troops to retreat to Wynberg, which is a tongue of land projecting from the east side of the Table Mountain, and about eight miles from Cape Town: the Hottentot corps still loitered about the rocks and did some mischief but, being speedily dislodged, fell back also upon

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Wynberg; after which the brave burgher cavalry scampered away to their respective homes without once stopping to look behind them.

The British troops, led on by General Sir James Craig, under the orders of Sir Alured Clarke, marched to attack the enemy on their elevated post; and having, by the assistance of the sailors, brought his guns and artillery to bear upon them, a few shot caused them to retreat within their lines. The English encamped on the spot from which they had dislodged the enemy; who, finding it in vain any longer to oppose a feeble resistance, sent, in the middle of the night, a flag of truce to propose a capitulation, which was acceded to and, the next day, concluded between the two parties. Most of the members of the government that were well disposed to the Prince of Orange, and had conducted themselves with propriety, were continued in office; and thus the plans of the Jacobin party were, for the present, completely defeated.

When the news of this event first reached England, the acquisition of so valuable a settlement was considered of the utmost importance to the British empire, and particularly to the East India Company, as being the grand out-work and a complete barrier to their vast possessions in India. So forcibly was the public mind impressed with an opinion of the great advantages that would result to the nation at large from the possession of the Cape, that the question was immediately started and discussed among persons entrusted with

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the management of the first political and commercial interests of the empire—Under what tenure it should be held? Whether the Cape should be considered as a foreign dependency of the crown, and subject to the same regulations as all the other colonies are; or, as a post to be annexed to the possessions which are under the administration of the East India Company? Those who held the latter opinion as a matter of right quoted the charter granted by Queen Elizabeth, by which the Company are allowed the privilege of a free and sole trade into the countries of Asia, Africa, and America, or any of them beyond the Cape of Buona Esperanza, to the Streights of Magellan. Those, who were inclined to think that the charters of the East India Company gave them no claim to the Cape, brought forward the charter they received from Charles the Second, in which no mention whatever is made of Africa.

While these questions were in agitation, two general plans floated in the mind of Mr. Dundas (now Lord Melville); both of which were so conceived as to combine the interests of the public with those of the East India Company. One of these plans supposed the Cape to be a foreign dependency of the Crown, and included such provisions and regulations as were compatible with the interests and the chartered privileges of the East India Company: the other invested the territorial possession in the East India Company, but proposed such regulations as were calculated to promote the general commercial prosperity of the British empire. And, in the mean time, until one or other of these plans should be

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adopted, the settlement was to be considered as dependent on the Crown, and to be administered by the executive power, as constitutionally responsible to Parliament.

Every precaution was also taken that the rights and privileges of the East India Company should suffer no infringement. The exclusive advantage of supplying the Cape with India and China goods was immediately and unconditionally granted to them. And the regulations adopted in consequence by the Earl of Macartney, and the vigilance that was constantly employed under his government, prevented and defeated every attempt to undermine their interests, and were productive of a source of considerable profit to the Company.

It was, in fact, the well known integrity of his Lordship's character, and the able and decided measures employed by him, on various trying occasions, for promoting and combining the interests of the East India Company with the honor of the Crown, and the commercial prosperity of the British empire, that determined the minister in his choice of him as governor for this important acquisition: and his Lordship was accordingly nominated, without his knowledge, whilst absent on public service in Italy.

As little doubt was entertained, at that time, either by his Majesty's ministers or the public, that the Cape would become, at a general peace, a settlement in perpetuity to England, great pains were employed in drawing up instructions

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and in framing such regulations as appeared to be best calculated for promoting the prosperity of the colony, securing the interests of the East India Company, and extending the commerce and navigation of Britain. Its importance, in fact, was deemed of such magnitude, that it was a resolution of the minister from which he never meant to recede, "That "no foreign power, directly or indirectly, should obtain pos- "session of the Cape of Good Hope, for, that it was the "*physical guarantee* of the *British territories* in India." Its political importance, indeed, could be doubted by none; its commercial advantages were believed by all.

Yet, after every precaution that had been employed for securing the privileges, increasing the conveniency, and promoting the interests, of the East India Company in this settlement, it was but too apparent that an inclination prevailed in some of the Directors to disparage or undervalue it. What their motives may have been, I do not pretend to determine; nor will I suppose that a body of men, who have always been remarkable for acting upon the broad basis of national prosperity, could, in the present instance, so far deviate from their usual line of conduct, as to bend to the influence of any little jealousy about patronage or prerogative, when the welfare of the public was so nearly concerned. The opinions of men, it is true, when grounded on moral events, are sometimes fugitive, and yield to circumstances: it were difficult, however, to assign any event or circumstance that could have operated so as to produce any reasonable grounds for a change in the opinion of the Directors of

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the East India Company, in the course of the last twenty years, with regard to the value of the Cape of Good Hope: many have occurred to enhance its importance.

That they did consider it of the utmost consequence, towards the end of the American war, is sufficiently evident from the conduct they adopted at that time. The moment that a Dutch war was found to be inevitable, towards the close of the year 1780, Lord North, whose sentiments on this point were in perfect agreement with those of the Directors, lost no time in communicating to the secret committee of the East India Company the information of it; in order, that they might take or suggest such measures, without delay, as the event might render most conducive to their interests. The chairman and deputy chairman, who, if I mistake not, at that time, were Mr. Devaynes and Mr. Sullivan, lost not a moment in consulting with such of their officers as happened to be then in London, and were supposed to be qualified to give good information. The result of their deliberations was a proposal, in the event of a Dutch war, to take possession of the Cape of Good Hope, as a measure of the utmost importance to the East India Company's concerns; and as this proposal met the concurrence of the minister, a squadron was immediately dispatched under the command of Commodore Johnston, who carried under his convoy their outward-bound fleet. Having anchored for refreshments in Porta Praya Bay, he was overtaken by Suffrein, with whom he fought an indecisive battle, which enabled the French to reach the Cape of Good Hope, and to place it in such a state of security that

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the Commodore did not think it prudent to make the attack, but contented himself with the capture of a few Dutch Indiamen in Salqanha Bay; whilst the French Admiral, having refitted and refreshed his squadron at the Cape, proceeded to Mauritius, and from thence to the Indian Seas with his ships and men in the highest order; a circumstance that was attended with no small degree of detriment and annoyance to the trade and possessions of the East India Company, as well as of expence and inconvenience to the Crown. For the failure, in the grand object of this expedition, not only gave the enemy the vast advantage of landing and refreshing their seamen and troops, who were soon recruited by the invigorating effects of a temperate climate and abundance of fresh provisions, fruits, and vegetables, but it likewise enabled him to keep a fleet almost constantly at sea, by the provisions and naval stores it received from the Cape through Mauritius by agents residing at the former place. Their own islands of Mauritius and Bourbon furnish no such supply, their productions not being adequate to the consumption of the inhabitants and the garrisons.

The French, in fact, have always contrived to refit and provision their ships, and to send their armaments supplied with stores to the Indian Seas from the Cape of Good Hope. Had it not been for the supplies furnished from this settlement, together with the possession of the harbour of Trincomaléé, it would have been utterly impossible for Suffrein to have supported his fleet, or maintained the contest with us in the manner he did.

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It was not, indeed, without a full conviction of its great utility to England, as well as of encumbrance to the Dutch, by the enormous expence it occasioned, that Mr. Dundas was induced, in the considerations on the treaty between Great Britain and Holland, transmitted to the British ambassador at the Hague in 1787, to propose to them the cession of certain stations in India, which were to them of little weight, either in a political or commercial point of view. The reasoning employed on this occasion was, "That the "Cape was invaluable in the hands of a maritime power, be- "ing really and truly the key to India, which no hostile fleet "could pass or repass, as the length of the previous voyage, "either from India or Europe, must have disabled such a "fleet, in a certain degree, before it could reach the Cape— "that it was the interest of Holland itself that the Cape and "Trincomalée should belong to Great Britain; because Hol- "land must either be the ally of Britain or of France in "India; and because Great Britain only can be an useful "ally of Holland in the East—that the Dutch were not able "to protect their settlements in that quarter, and Britain "fully competent to their protection—that the Cape and "Trincomalée were not commercial establishments, and that "the maintenance of them was burthensome and expensive "to the Dutch—but that the force required to protect the "British Indian possessions would render the defence of the "Dutch settlements much less so to Britain."

The Earl of Macartney was not less convinced of the policy, nor less persuaded of the readiness, of the Dutch to leave the Cape in our hands, provided they were allowed to

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have a choice of their own. In his letter to Mr. Dundas, dated October 1797, he observes, " The power and influence " of Holland appear to me so irretrievable, that it is impos- " sible she can ever again hold an independent possession of " the Cape. Indeed, before the war, she was neither rich " enough to maintain its establishments, nor strong enough " to govern its people, and, I believe, had it not been for our " conquest of the country, it would soon have attempted to " become independent. As Holland is likely to be in future " less powerful at home, and consequently less respectable " abroad, and as the Cape would be a burthen to her, not " easy to bear, it would not be against her interest to leave it " in our hands, for in such case she might derive, without any " expence, all the advantages of its original intention, which " was that of a place of refreshment for her commerce to " the eastward; and there are other circumstances which, " were she now in a situation dispassionately to consider, I " have reason to imagine, would lead her to adopt this sen- " timent. The French (who, to speak of them in the lan- " guage of truth and experience, and not in the jargon of " pretended Cosmopolites, are, and ever must be, our natural " enemies) can only wish to have the Cape either in their " own hands, or in those of a weak power, that they may use " it as an instrument towards our destruction; as a channel " for pouring through it an irresistible deluge upon our " Indian possessions to the southward of the Guadavery. Of " this I am so perfectly convinced, that if it shall be found " impracticable for us to retain the sovereignty of the Cape, " and the French are to become the masters of it, either " *per se, aut per alium*, then we must totally alter our present

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" system, and adopt such measures as will shut them out of " India entirely, and render the possession of the Cape and " of the isles of France and Bourbon of as little use to them " as possible."

Whatever might have been the feelings of the Dutch with regard to the Cape, under the old government, I have high authority in saying that Holland never did expect, and indeed had scarcely a wish for, the restoration of this colony at a peace; well knowing that they would be allowed by the English to enjoy the advantages of refreshing and provisioning their ships, without the expence of maintaining it. In fact they are utterly unable to support a garrison sufficient for its defence; and so conscious were they of it that a proposition was made, on the part of Schimmelpenninck, to declare the Cape a *free port*, to be placed under any flag except their own. But the only power that Holland possessed, in framing the treaty of peace, was a mere name; and all the territories that were nominally restored to the Batavian Republic were virtually given up to France. As a proof of the superior light in which the Dutch consider their settlements in the East, from which they draw their coffee, pepper, and other spices, it may be observed that they have completely stripped the Cape of every ship of war, which, with seven or eight hundred troops, have proceeded for the defence of Java and the Molucca Islands; from these they draw a considerable revenue, but the Cape is a burden which their finances are little able to support.

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I have stated thus much with regard to the opinions that have hitherto been held of the importance of the Cape of Good Hope to the British trade and settlements in India, at a time when we were made to feel the inconvenience of its being in the possession of an enemy, or even of a neutral power, because a very sensible change of opinion appears to have taken place from the very moment it became a dependency on the British Crown. For it is very certain that the Directors of the East India Company did not only assume an affected indifference, with regard to this settlement, but employed agents to depreciate its value in the House of Commons, and endeavoured to discourage the retention of it in the most effectual manner they possibly could have thought of, by shewing and proving to the world, as they imagined they had done, that the possession of the Cape was of no use whatsoever to their commerce, or their concerns in India. With this view the commanders of all the ships in their employ were forbidden, in the most positive terms, to touch at the Cape, either in their outward or their homeward bound passage, except such, on the return voyage, as were destined to supply the settlement with Indian goods.

But this ill-judged and absurd order defeated itself. Though the strength and constitution of English seamen, corroborated by wholesome food, may support them on a passage from India to England, shortened as it now is by the modern improvements in the art of navigation, without the necessity of touching at any intermediate port, yet this is not the case with regard to the Lascars, or natives of India who,

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in time of war, constitute frequently more than two-thirds of the crew. These poor creatures, whose chief sustenance is rice, oil, and vegetables, are ill calculated to suffer a long privation of their usual diet, and still less so to bear the cold of the southern ocean, especially in the winter season. By them the Cape was looked up to as a half-way house, where a stock of fresh supplies was to be had, and where the delay of a few days had a wonderful effect in recruiting their health and spirits. And the event very soon shewed that such a half-way house, to such people, was indispensably necessary; for the Directors were obliged to countermand their order as far as it regarded those ships that were navigated by the black natives of India.

Whenever it has happened that government was under the necessity of sending out troops in ships navigated by Lascars, a greater degree of sickness and mortality has prevailed than in ships entirely manned by Europeans; and under such circumstances it would be highly criminal to attempt to run from Europe to India without stopping at some intermediate port, not only to procure refreshments for the troops and Lascars, but to clean and fumigate the ships in order to prevent contagious diseases. The two Boy regiments, as they are usually called, the 22d and 34th, which it was necessary to send to the Cape as a reinforcement of the garrison, after the able and effective men had been sent away to Madras, who soon after so materially assisted in the conquest of Seringapatam, arrived in a dreadful state at the Cape; the disease had gained such a height, that if the Cape had not at that time been in our possession it was universally be-

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lieved not an officer nor a man could possibly have survived the voyage to India. Yet the same ships, after being properly washed, scoured, and fumigated, and the crews completely refreshed, carried on other troops to their destination without the loss of a single man.

How far the conduct of the Directors was compatible with the interests of the East India Proprietors, who have consigned them to their management, I shall endeavour to point out in the subsequent pages, and to state some of those advantages that would have resulted to the British nation in general, and to the East India Company in particular, by annexing the Cape to the foreign possessions of England; and the serious consequences that must infallibly ensue from its being in the possession of an enemy. Opinions on this subject, it would seem, are widely different; on which account a fair and impartial statement of such circumstances as may tend to elucidate a doubtful point, may not be deemed impertinent, and may ultimately be productive of good, by assisting those, to whose care the best interests of the country are committed, to form their judgment on facts locally collected, and brought in some order together under one point of view. It is not unimportant to premise that such facts were either taken from authentic and official documents, or fell immediately under my own observation.

I proceed then, in the first place, to consider the Cape of Good Hope in the view of a military station; by which term I do not mean to confine myself to the mere garrison that may be considered necessary for the defence of the settle-

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ment, but to extend the acceptation of the word to that of a military depôt, or place suitable for collecting and forming, so as always to have in readiness, a body of troops, either belonging to his Majesty's regular regiments, or to the armies of the East India Company, fitted and prepared for foreign service, and seasoned for the climates either of the East or the West Indies.

A very general notion seems to have been entertained in this country in all our former wars, by people who consider only the outlines or superficies of things, and such, by the way, constitute by far the largest portion of mankind, that if the minister can contrive to furnish money, the money will supply men, and these men will form an army. It is true they will so; just as a collection of oak timber brought to a dock-yard will form a ship. But a great deal of labor is necessary in the seasoning, hewing, and shaping of such timber, and a great deal of judgment and practice still required to arrange and adapt the several parts to each other, so that they may act in concert together, and form a complete whole that shall be capable of performing all the effects that were intended to be produced. Thus is it also in the formation of an army. It is not enough to collect together a body of men and to put arms into their hands. They must be classed and arranged, seasoned and inured to a certain way of life; exercised in certain motions and positions of the body, until long practice has rendered them habitual and easy; they must be taught to act in an uniform and simultaneous movement, and in such a manner that the separate action of the individuals shall form one united impulse, producing the greatest

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possible effect of aggregated strength. They must also be taught to preserve their health and strength by habits of temperance and cleanliness, and to take care of themselves in the various circumstances that may occur of situation and climate.

Such a body of men, so formed and prepared, may properly be called soldiers. And no small degree of attention and judgment is required to bring a body of men to such a state of discipline. Yet it is highly important that all troops, intended to be sent on foreign service, should at least be partly formed, and instructed in the art of taking proper care of themselves, previous to their embarkation. Being once accustomed to habits of cleanliness and regularity, they are less liable to fall a sacrifice to the close confinement and want of room in a ship; and the inconveniencies of a long sea voyage will always be less felt by persons thus prepared than by raw undisciplined recruits, who are apt to be heedless, slovenly, and irregular.

But even old seasoned troops, after a long sea-voyage, are generally found to be disqualified, during a considerable time, for any great exertion. The tone or elasticity of the mind has become relaxed as well as the habit of body. Let any one recollect how he felt after a long sea-voyage, and ask himself if he were capable of the same exertion, and of undergoing the same fatigue, immediately after landing as before his embarkation. The answer, I fancy, will be in the negative. The limbs, in fact, require to be exercised in order to regain their usual motions, and the lungs must have

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practice before they will play with their usual freedom in the chest. And these effects, adverse to prompt and energetic action, will generally be proportioned to the length of the voyage, and the privations to which men must necessarily submit.

The very able and intelligent writer of the *Précis des evènemens militaires*, or *Epitome of military events*, seems to ascribe the defeat of the Russian column, commanded by General Hermann, in the affair at Bergen where it was almost cut to pieces, to their marching against the enemy immediately after landing from a sea-voyage, although it had not been very long. He observes that, "by being crowded on board "transports, and other inconveniencies experienced at sea, "not only a considerable number of individuals are weak-"ened to such a degree that they are incapable of any ser-"vice, but whole corps sometimes present the same disad-"vantages—the extreme inequality of strength that, in such "cases, prevails between the individuals or constituent parts "of corps, is, at once, destructive of their aggregated and "combined impulse."

If then such be the effects produced on seasoned troops, on a sea-voyage of a moderate length only, they must be doubly felt by young recruits unaccustomed to the necessary precautions for preserving their health. In fact, a raw recruit, put on board a ship in England, totally unformed and undisciplined, will be much farther from being a soldier, when he arrives in India, than when he first stepped on board. The odds are great that he dies upon the passage, or that he

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arrives under incurable disease. I think I have heard that not more than three out of five are calculated upon as able to enter the lists on their arrival in India; and that of those, who may chance to arrive in tolerable health, a great proportion may be expected to die in the seasoning, from the debilitating effects of a hot climate. India is, perhaps, the worst place in the whole world for forming an European recruit into a soldier. Unable to bear the fatigue of being exercised, his spirits are moreover depressed by observing how little exertion men of the same rank and condition as himself are accustomed to make. It cannot, therefore, be denied that, as long as it shall be found necessary to recruit our large armies in India with European troops, it would be a most desirable object to be in possession of some middle station to break the length of the sea-voyage; a station which at the same time enjoys a middle temperature of climate, between the extremes of heat and cold, to season the body and adapt it to sustain an increased quantity of the one or the other.

The Cape of Good Hope eminently points out such a station. Its geographical position on the globe is so commanding a feature, that the bare inspection of a map, without any other information, must at once obtrude its importance and value in this respect. Its distance from the coast of Brazil is the voyage of a month; from the Dutch colonies of Surinam, Demarara, Berbice, and Essiquebo, with the West India islands, six weeks; the same to the Red Sea; and two months to the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel. With the east and the west coasts of Africa and

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the adjacent islands, it commands a ready communication at all seasons of the year. A place so situated, just half way between England and India, in a temperate and wholesome climate, and productive of refreshments of every description, would naturally be supposed to hold out such irresistible advantages to the East India Company, not only by its happy position and local ascendancy, but also by the means it affords of opening a new market and intermediate depository for their trade and commodities, that they would have been glad to purchase, at any price, an acquisition of such immense importance; and that such great advantages as it possessed, however they might be blinked by some or unknown to others, would speedily have forced a general conviction of their value, in spite of real ignorance or affected indifference.

One might also have supposed that the possession of the Cape of Good Hope would have suggested itself to the East India Company as a place which would have removed many, if not all, of the difficulties that occurred to them, on the renewal of their privileges in 1793, when a depôt for their recruits in Britain was in contemplation. The principal regulations proposed for such depository of troops, as contained in "*Historic View of Plans for British India*," were the following:—"That the age of the Company's recruits should "be from twelve to fifteen or twenty, because, at this period "of life, the constitution was found to accommodate itself "most easily to the different variations of climate—that the "officers of the police should be empowered to transfer to "the depôt all such helpless and indigent youths as might

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" be found guilty of misdemeanors and irregularities ap-
" proaching to crimes—that the said officers of police and others
" should be authorized to engage destitute and helpless young
" men in a service, where they would have a comfortable sub-
" sistence, and an honourable employment—that the young
" men so procured should be retained in Great Britain, at the
" depôt, for a certain time, in order to be instructed in such
" branches of education as would qualify for the duty of a non-
" commissioned officer, and in those military exercises which
" form them for immediate service in the regiments in India."

Now of all the places on the surface of the globe, for the establishment of such a depôt, the Cape of Good Hope is pre-eminently distinguished. In the first place, there would be no difficulty in conveying them thither. At all seasons of the year, the outward bound ships of the Company, private traders, or whalers, sail from England, and the more they were distributed among the ships the greater the probability would be that none of them died on the passage. There is not, perhaps, any place on the face of the earth which in every respect is so suitable as the Cape for forming them into soldiers. It possesses, among other good qualities, three advantages that are invaluable—healthiness of climate—cheapness of subsistence—and a favourable situation for speedy intercourse with most parts of the world, and particularly with India. I shall make a few remarks on each of these points.

To establish the fact of the healthiness of its climate, I do not consider it as necessary to produce copies of the regular returns

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of deaths in the several regiments that, for seven years, have been stationed at the Cape of Good Hope. Such dry details furnish very little of the useful and less of the agreeable. They might, indeed, serve to shew, on a comparison with other returns sent in from different foreign stations, how very trifling was the mortality of troops in this settlement. It will be sufficient, however, for my purpose to observe, that Lord Macartney, in order to save a vast and an unnecessary expence to the public, found it expedient to break up the hospital staff, which, in fact, was become perfectly useless, there being at that time no sick whatsoever in the general hospital, and so few as scarcely worth the noticing in the regimental hospitals; and the surgeons of the regiments acknowledged that those few under their care were the victims of intemperance and irregularity. At this time the strength of the garrison consisted of more than five thousand men.

Shortly after the capture, it is true, a considerable sickness prevailed among the British troops, and great numbers died, a circumstance that was noticed, and at the same time fully explained, by General Sir James Craig in his letter to Mr. Dundas, about three months after the cession of the colony. He observes that the soldiers of the Dutch East India Company were obliged to furnish their own bedding and blankets, as well as the necessary garrison and camp furniture; so that, when the Dutch entered into the capitulation, not a single article of garrison furniture could be claimed; and as the shops, at that time, furnished no such materials, the men were obliged to sleep on the bare flag-stones in the great barrack,

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until a supply of blankets and camp utensils of every kind could be sent out from England.

Invalids from India recover very quickly at the Cape. The servants of the East India Company are allowed to proceed thus far on leave of absence without prejudice to their rank; and here they generally experience a speedy recovery. The two Boy regiments, whom I have already mentioned to have suffered severely on the passage from England in ships navigated by Lascars, and who landed in fact at the height of a malignant and contagious disease, rapidly recovered; and, in the course of two years, from being a parcel of weakly boys, unable to carry their musquets, became two very fine regiments, fit for service in any part of the world. When the orders, indeed, for the final evacuation of the Cape were countermanded, the 34th regiment, which two years before had excited the pity of every one who saw them, enfeebled as they were by disease, and unfit, from their tender years, for the fatigues of soldiers, was now a very essential part of the strength of the garrison.

It may, therefore, I think, be safely concluded, that the climate of the Cape is not only salubrious, but that it is particularly favourable for forming young and raw recruits into soldiers. And it would appear, moreover, that the salutary effects of this climate are not merely local, but that their seasoning efficacy is extended beyond the hemisphere of Southern Africa, and qualifies, in a very remarkable manner, the raw recruit and the seasoned soldier for the climate of

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India, and the still more trying situation of the voyage thither. The constitution would seem to acquire, by a few years residence at the Cape, a strength and vigour which not only enable it to surmount the inconveniencies of the sea, but, contrary to what usually happens, to sustain the fatigue of long and continued marches in a hot climate, immediately after disembarkation.

The truth of this observation was made evident by a number of instances which occurred during the seven years that the Cape remained in our possession; but in none more strongly than that, in the government of Lord Macartney, when three almost complete regiments of infantry, the 84th, the 86th, and the Scotch brigade, were embarked and sent off, at a few days' notice, under the command of Major-General Baird, to join the army of India against Tippoo Sultaun. This reinforcement, consisting of upwards of two thousand men in their shoes, arrived to a man, and in the highest state of health; took the field the day after their landing; marched into the Mysore country; co-operated with the Indian army, and contributed very materially towards the conquest of Seringapatam. The very man (Major-General Baird), under whose command they sailed from the Cape but a few months before, led them on to storm this celebrated capital of the Mysore kingdom.

One might have supposed that the facility and success of throwing reinforcements into India, exemplified in this remarkable instance, would have stamped on the minds of the Directors of the East India Company an indelible value on

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the Cape. "By possessing and improving the advantages of "seasoning and preparing our troops at the Cape," observes Lord Macartney in his letter to Lord Melville on the importance of the settlement, dated April the 25th, 1801, "I had "it in my power, almost at a moment's notice, to send to "Madras, under the command of Major-General Baird, "about two thousand effective men in the highest health, "vigor, and discipline, who eminently contributed to the "capture of Seringapatam, and the total subversion of the "power of Tippoo."

It did not seem, however, to have made any such impression on the East India Company; at least their conduct and opinions did not indicate any change in consequence of it. Nor could their inflexible indifference be roused by the multiplied instances which occurred of the solid advantages, every one of which clearly demonstrated the importance, of having a suitable station for the seasoning and training of young troops to act, on any emergency and at a short notice, in their service, and for the protection of their vast possessions in India. Had not the very striking instance above recited been considered as sufficient to stamp the value of the Cape, the reinforcement of troops that was sent from thence, to accompany the expedition of Sir Home Popham to the Red Sea, it might be supposed, would have forced conviction of the importance of such a station. On this occasion were embarked, at almost a moment's warning, twelve hundred effective men, composed of detachments of artillery, cavalry, and infantry, who all arrived to a man, at Cossir, a port in the Red Sea, from whence they were found capable of immediately sustaining

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long and fatiguing marches, notwithstanding the heat of the climate, the heaviness of the ground, and the scarcity of water. The 61st Regiment, Sir Robert Wilson observes, landed at Cossir after having been near sixteen weeks on board, without having one sick man, though the strength of the regiment exceeded nine hundred men.

A thousand difficulties, it appears, were started in England with regard to the sailing of this expedition, by people who derive their information only from defective books, and not from local knowledge. The season of the Monsoon was stated to be unfavorable for the navigation of the Red Sea, and the deserts by which it was bordered were held to be totally impassable. But to vigorous and determined minds few things are insurmountable. "The man (Lord Melville) "who projected, and persevered in, the expedition to Egypt," saw very clearly that the expedition to the Red Sea could not fail under proper caution and management, and the event proved that he was right.

Having thus sufficiently shewn, as I conceive, the importance of the Cape as a military station, or depositary of troops, as far as regards the healthiness of the climate, and the effects produced on the constitution of soldiers, by being seasoned and exercised a short time there, I shall now proceed to state the comparatively small expence at which the soldier can be subsisted on this station, and the saving that must necessarily ensue both to Government and the East India Company, by sending their recruits to the Cape to be trained for service either in the East or the West Indies. And as some of his

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Majesty's late ministers, in discussing its merits on the question of the peace of Amiens, justified the surrender on the ground of its being an expensive settlement, I shall be more particular on this head, in order to prove to them, what indeed I imagine they are now sufficiently convinced of, how much they had mistaken the subject; and that the cant of economy was but a poor justification for the sacrifice of a place of such importance.

The Cape of Good Hope is the only military station that we ever possessed, and perhaps the only garrison that exists, where the soldier can be subsisted for the sum of money which is deducted out of his pay in consideration of his being furnished with a daily ration or fixed proportion of victuals. In other places, government, by feeding the soldier in this manner, sustains a very considerable loss; that is to say, the ration costs more money than that which is deducted from his pay; but it is a necessary loss, as the soldier could not possibly subsist himself out of his pay in any part of the world, unless in those places where provisions are as cheap as at the Cape of Good Hope. Here each ration costs the government something less than sixpence, which was the amount of the stoppage deducted in lieu of it. But each individual soldier could not have supplied his own ration for eightpence or ninepence at the very least, so that the gain made by government, in furnishing the rations, was also a saving, as well as a great accommodation, to the soldiers. At home, and in different parts abroad, as I have been informed, the ration stands the government in different sums from tenpence to half-a-crown.

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At the Cape of Good Hope, some twenty years ago, two pound of butchers' meat cost one penny; at the capture by the English the price had advanced to one pound for twopence; yet, notwithstanding the increased demand, occasioned by the addition of five thousand troops and near three thousand seamen, frequently more than this number, with all the various attempts and combinations that were practised (and, on a certain occasion in the year 1800, very unwisely countenanced by high authority) to raise the price of this article, the contract for supplying the garrison was never higher than at the rate of two and five-eighths pounds for sixpence. Two pounds of good wholesome bread might be generally purchased for twopence. Even in the midst of a scarcity, which threatened a famine, bread rose no higher than twopence the pound; and all kinds of fruit and vegetables are so abundant, and so cheap, as to be within the reach of the poorest person. A pint of good sound wine may be procured at the retail price of threepence; and were it not for the circumstance of the licence for selling wine by retail being farmed out as one source of the colonial revenue, a pint of the same wine would cost little more than three-halfpence.

The farming out of the wine licence was a subject of grievance to the soldier, as it compelled him to buy his wine in small quantities at the licensed houses, when the civilians and housekeepers were allowed to purchase it in casks of twenty gallons, at the rate of five or six rixdollars the cask, which is just about half the retail price he was obliged to pay for it. Yet, vexatious as such a regulation appeared to be, it was

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still sufficiently cheap to enable the soldier to purchase fully as much as was useful to him. Numbers of the soldiers, indeed, contrived to save money out of their pay. The 91st regiment of Highlanders, in particular, was known to have remitted a good deal of money to their families in Scotland; and many of the serjeants of the different regiments, at the evacuation of the colony, had saved from one to two hundred pounds in hard money.

In the year 1800 the government, in order to bring a little more money into the treasury by the wine licence, directed, by proclamation, that the retail sellers should demand from the soldier the increased price of eightpence the bottle, instead of sixpence, which, however, they had prudence enough to decline. The sum brought into the government treasury by tolerating this monopoly, averaged about seventy thousand rixdollars annually. But in the event of the Cape falling again into our hands, which sooner or later must happen, if it be an object to secure our Indian possessions, it would be wise to supply this part of the revenue by some other means.

Government likewise derived other profits besides those which accrued from the cheapness of the rations. The Deputy-Paymaster-General drew bills on his Majesty's Paymasters-General in England, in exchange for the paper currency of the colony, in which all the contingent and extraordinary expences of the garrison were paid. There was not, in fact, any other circulating medium than this colonial currency which was sanctioned by the English at the capitula-

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tion. The hard money that was brought into the colony from time to time, for the purpose of paying the troops, always found its way to India and China, which made it extremely difficult for the Paymaster to collect the necessary sums. But so tenacious was Lord Macartney in adhering to the principle of paying the soldiers in specie, that, notwithstanding the difficulties and the delay which sometimes occurred in procuring it, he chose rather to let the troops go in arrear, than pay them in paper with the highest premium added to it, to prevent the possibility of a suspicion entering a soldier's mind, that he might be cheated. The premium which Government bills bore in exchange for paper currency fluctuated from five to thirty per cent., but was fixed, for the greater part of the time, at twenty per cent. They would, indeed, have advanced to a much higher rate; for the merchant, unable to make his remittances to any great extent in colonial produce, or in India goods, which, if permitted, might have been injurious to the interests of the East India Company, was under the necessity of purchasing these bills. Lord Macartney, however, considered it expedient to fix the premium at twenty per cent., deeming it right that government bills should bear the highest premium of bills that might be in the market, but, at the same time, not to proceed to such a height as to become oppressive either to the merchant or the public. The drawing of these bills was therefore a source of profit to government. Being an article of merchandize among the English traders who had their remittances to make, and the demand for them exceeding the amount that was necessary to be drawn for the extraordinaries of the army, the premium would have risen in proportion to

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their scarcity. To have issued them at par with the paper currency to be trafficked with for the benefit of individuals, when that profit could fairly and honorably be applied to the public service, would be a criminal neglect in those who were entrusted with the government. The merchant, no doubt, took care to cover the *per centage* paid on his remittances by a proportionate advance on his goods; and thus the exchange might operate as a trifling indirect tax on the general consumer of foreign articles, which the increased prosperity of the colony very well enabled them to pay.

The amount of bills thus drawn for the contingent and extraordinary expences of the army, from the 1st of October 1795, when the colony was taken, to the 28th of July 1802, the time it should have been evacuated, as appears from the Deputy Paymaster's books, is 1,045,814*l.* 14*s.* 1*d.* upon part of which (for part was drawn at par for specie) the profit derived to his Majesty's government amounts to the sum of 115,719*l.* 3*s.* 1*d.*

Another source of profit, which might have been very considerable, was derived from the importation of specie. The pay of the soldiers, as I have observed above, was invariably made in hard money, and not in paper currency. The Spanish dollar was issued in payment to the troops at the rate of five shillings sterling, which was always its nominal value at the Cape; and, I imagine, it might have been purchased and sent out at four shillings and fourpence, making thus a profit of more than fifteen per cent. on the pay, as well as on the extraordinaries, of the army. The sum that was

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thus imported amounted to 103,426*l.* 18*s.* 3*d.* Upon which, supposing the whole sent out by government, which I understand was not exactly the case, though nearly so, the profits must have been 15,514*l.* at home, besides an additional profit of 710*l.* 13*s.* 3*d.* arising from a small quantity of specie bought in the Cape. As government, however, did not send out a sufficient supply from home, the Paymaster was sometimes under the necessity of purchasing hard money at a higher rate than five shillings the dollar, and consequently suffered a loss, as this was the invariable rate at which it was issued to the troops. About four thousand pounds of copper money were sent out, in penny pieces, which were circulated at twopence, from which there was consequently another profit derived of 4000*l.* This was done by the advice of the police magistrates, who were confident that unless this nominal and current value should be put upon it, the foreigners trading to India would carry it as well as the silver out of the colony.

Shortly after the capture of the Cape, General Craig, finding it impossible to raise, upon bills, a sufficient sum of paper currency to defray the extraordinaries of the army, was reduced to the bold measure of stamping a new paper issue, on the credit of the British government, to the amount of fifty thousand pounds; a sum that was never redeemed from circulation, nor brought to any account, until the final restoration of the colony. So that the interest of this sum for seven years produced a further saving to government of 17,500*l.*

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By taking these sums together, namely,

Profit on bills drawn -	*L.* 115,719	3	1
—— on specie imported -	16,224	13	3
—— on copper money -	4,000	0	0
—— on paper money circulated	17,500	0	0
We have	*L.* 153,443	16	

which may be considered as a clear gain to the government, (independent of the saving on each ration,) and, consequently, a lessening of the expenditure that was occasioned at the Cape of Good Hope.

As this expenditure has publicly been declared of such enormous magnitude as to overbalance all the advantages resulting from the possession of the settlement, and we have already seen how important these advantages are, when considered only in one point of view, it may not be amiss to point out, in as correct a manner as the nature of the subject will admit, the exact sum expended in any one year, in the military department, at the Cape of Good Hope. The year I shall take is from May 1797 to May 1798, when the garrison was strongest; consisting of

The 8th, 28th	Light Dragoons.
The 84th, 86th, 91st, Scotch Brigade	Infantry

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In that year the estimate was made up according to the following extract:

1. Subsistence of the non-commissioned officers and privates of the two regiments of dragoons and four regiments of infantry, for one year, according to the new rate of payment, deducting for rations and hospital charges, - - -	55,729	2	6
2. Clothing and contingent expences for ditto, - - - - - - -	28,133	13	2
3. Full pay of the commissioned officers of two regiments of dragoons, and four regiments of infantry for one year, according to the latest regulations, - -	43,667	14	8
4. Staff officers and hospital establishment of one inspector, two physicians, one purveyor, four surgeons, two apothecaries, and nine hospital mates, - -	11,178	2	6
5. Commissary-General's department, including engineers, which alone amounts to 17,225*l.* 16*s.* 5*d.* - - -	107,794	10	11
6. Ordnance department, including artillery expences, - - - - -	18,536	14	4
7. Deputy Quarter-Master General's department, including lodging money to officers, which amounts to about 4000*l.* and bat and forage for 200 days about 6000*l.* in the whole - - -	25,000	0	0
Total amount of one year's expence	*L.* 290,039	18	1

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Or, we may, perhaps, be able to come still nearer the truth, by taking the total expenditure of the whole seven years, thus:

Amount of bills drawn by the Deputy Paymaster General for paper and specie, for the pay and subsistence of the non-commissioned officers and privates, and for the extraordinaries of the army for seven years, - - - -	1,045,814	14	1
Specie imported and bought (about) -	111,000	0	0
Clothing and contingent expences at the rate as above specified per year, -	196,935	12	2
Full pay of the commissioned officers of six regiments, as above, for seven years,	305,674	2	8
Ordnance department for seven years,	129,757	0	4
Total amount	£. 1,789,181	9	3

which total amount, divided by seven, gives 255,597*l.* 7*s.* for the annual average expence incurred in the military department at the Cape of Good Hope. But it would be the height of absurdity to say, that even this sum, moderate as it is, was an additional expence to Government in consequence of the capture of this settlement; since it is not only composed of the expences of maintaining the garrison, and the contingencies and extraordinaries of the army, but it includes, likewise, the pay, the subsistence, and the clothing of an army of five thousand men. Now as these troops must have been fed, clothed, and paid in any other place, as well

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as at the Cape of Good Hope, and, as I have shewn, at a much greater expence, it is certainly not fair to charge this sum to the account of the garrison of the Cape. Even in peace the commissioned officers would have received their half pay, which alone would amount to a sum from 100,000*l.* to 150,000*l.*

There are not, therefore, any grounds for considering the Cape in the light of an expensive settlement. In fact, the sums of money, which have been expended there, dwindle into nothing upon a comparison with those in some of the West India islands, whose importance is a feather when weighed against that of the Cape of Good Hope. Viewing it only as a point of security to our Indian possessions, and as a nursery for maturing raw recruits into complete soldiers, the question of expence must fall to the ground. Of the several millions that are annually raised for the support of government at home, and its dependencies abroad, a small fraction of one of these millions may surely be allowed for the maintenance of a station whose advantages are incalculable. One single fact will sufficiently prove the fallacy of holding out the Cape as an expensive garrison. The price of good bread was one penny a pound, of good mutton and fresh beef twopence, of good sound wine little more than one shilling the gallon, of fruit and vegetables of every description a mere trifle. If in such a country the maintenance of the garrison be attended with great expence, the fault must rest with the government, and cannot be attributable to any unfavorable circumstances in the place itself. If full powers are en-

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trusted to weak and corrupt governors, and numerous and unnecessary appointments are created, every station, whatever the local advantages may be, will become expensive.

But the expenditure necessary for the support of the garrison of the Cape, trifling even in war, could be no object whatsoever in time of peace. The fortifications, which were in the most ruinous condition when the place was taken, being finished in a complete manner, would require no further expence than that of merely keeping the works in repair, which might amount, perhaps, to an annual sum of five thousand pounds. The contingencies and extraordinaries of the army could not, at the utmost, amount to twenty thousand pounds; so that twenty-five or thirty thousand pounds would be the extent of the contingent and extraordinary expences of the Cape in time of peace; a sum that, by proper management, and a prudent application of the revenues of the colony, might easily be defrayed out of the public treasury, and leave a surplus adequate to all the demands of the civil department, together with the necessary repairs of public works and buildings.

It may be necessary that I should give the grounds upon which I calculate. From a review of the colonial revenues, I find that the average in the Dutch Government in ten years, from 1784 to 1794, was little more than 100,000 rixdollars yearly, but that by the regulations and new imposts made by the Dutch Commissaries General in 1793, the amount in the following year was 211,568 rixdollars. They

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afterwards experienced a considerable increase, and from the first year of Lord Macartney's administration they rose gradually as follows:

From the 1st Oct. 1797 to the 30th Sept. 1798, they were - - -	*R. d.*	322,512	7 5
1st ditto 1798 to ditto 1799 -		360,312	0 0
1st ditto 1799 to ditto 1800 -		369,596	0 0
1st ditto 1800 to ditto 1801 -		450,713	2 4

And it is here not unworthy of notice, that from the moment of the preliminaries of peace being known they fell, the last year's produce being only

From 1st Oct. 1801 to 30th Sept. 1802 -		389,901	6 0

And in the following year, as far of it as was expired, they were still less productive.

In their state of progressive improvement under the British Government, without a single additional tax being laid but, on the contrary, some taken off and others modified, arrears of land-rent remitted and again accumulating, I think that under the British flag we might, without any danger of exaggeration, reckon upon a net annual revenue of half a million rixdollars, or one hundred thousand pounds currency. The annual average expenditure, including salaries and contingencies of departments, with the necessary repairs of public works and buildings, were, under the administrations of Lord Macartney and Lieutenant-General Dundas, at the most

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about 300,000 rixdollars or 60,000*l.* Suppose then the contingencies and extraordinaries of the army to be 30,000*l.* the whole sum required would be 90,000*l.* or 450,000 rixdollars, the exact amount of the colonial revenue at the close of the year 1801.

The point of view, in which the importance of the Cape next presents itself to our consideration, is its local position, as being favourable for distributing troops to any part of the globe, and especially to our settlements in the east, with facility and dispatch; which is not by any means the least among those advantages it possesses as a military station. Important as the considerations are of healthiness of climate and cheapness of subsistence where a depôt of troops is intended to be formed, its value in these respects would very materially be diminished by great distance from, or difficulty of conveyance to, those places where their services are most likely to be required.

The longer the voyage the less effective will the troops be on their arrival; and delay is dangerous, even to a proverb. Perhaps it is not saying too much, that we are indebted in a very high degree to the Cape for the conquest of Mysore and the overthrow of Tippoo; not merely from the reinforcements that were sent from thence to join the Indian army, though they eminently contributed to the conquest of Seringapatam, but from the speedy intelligence obtained of the transactions carrying on at the Isle of France in consequence of the arrival of the Sultaun's agents, of which they were entirely ignorant in India, but which, by the vigilance and precaution of Lord

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Macartney, were detected and communicated to the Governor-general of Bengal. "I received," the Marquis of Wellesley observes in his dispatch to the Court of Directors, "on "the 18th of June 1798, a regular authentication of the pro- "clamation (of the Governor of the Isle of France) in a "letter from his Excellency the Earl of Macartney, dated the "28th of March." And he acted, on this intelligence, with that prudence, promptitude, and spirit, for which the character of the noble Marquis is so eminently distinguished. The object of Tippoo was to gain time in order that he might strengthen his position and augment his forces. But the rapid movement of our troops towards his capital, as soon as his hostile views were confirmed, frustrated his plans, and effected the total subversion of his country. Both the moment of attack and the reinforcement from the Cape were acknowledged to be important; in either of which a failure might have proved fatal to the campaign, and would, at all events, have postponed the day of victory.

The almost incredible celerity, with which twelve hundred effective men joined the Egyptian army in high health and spirits from the Cape of Good Hope, is another instance that must force conviction of its vast importance as a military station. The advantages indeed that are afforded by its geographical position of acquiring and conveying intelligence with respect to the affairs of neighbouring nations, or of transporting troops, are by no means precarious or depending on chance; there being scarcely a week in the year in which English whalers or merchantmen, or ships of neutral powers, do not touch at the Cape, especially on their outward bound

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voyage. And few of these are unwilling to engage as transports.

It appears from the books of the Custom-house, and the returns of the Captain of the port, that there sailed from the Cape

In 1799	-	103 ships
1800	-	109 ditto
1801	-	130 ditto
1802	-	131 ditto

being, in four years, 473 ships,

besides the men of war and coasting vessels. Of these 82 were Americans, 66 Danes, 24 Portugueze, 15 from Hamburgh, and 6 Swedes, 4 from Prussia and Bremen, and the rest English.

The Americans, for some years past, have been establishing a very considerable carrying trade from the eastward on the ruins of the Dutch commerce, and have acquired no small portion of the India and China commerce. The ships of this nation have always found it convenient to touch at the Cape, partly for the sake of refreshing their crews, but with a view, at the same time, of disposing of the whole or any part of their cargo to advantage. This cargo is generally lumber, or it is composed of what they quaintly term *notions*, from the great variety and assortment of goods which they take a fancy, or *notion*, may succeed. In payment of such a cargo they are glad to get bills on India for hard money, which they carry to China to purchase teas, nankeens, and porcelain. From

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the Cape to India they are always glad of the opportunity of being employed as transports.

The situation is pretty much the same with regard to the Danes. But the assistance of neither the one nor the other could possibly be wanted, provided the numerous fleets of our East India Company were permitted to touch at the Cape. Without the least inconvenience to their commercial concerns, these ships might transport from England to the Cape a constant succession of raw recruits to be formed there into complete soldiers, from whence they might take on board as many of the latter as should be wanted to reinforce their armies serving in India.

The possession of the Cape is also important in another point of view. Foreign nations trading to India may be said to be at the mercy of the power which holds this grand outwork.

To England, however, its real value consists more in the effectual security it is capable of affording to her trade and settlements in India, than to any advantage that might be taken of annoying or interrupting the commercial concerns of other nations. The unbounded credit of the East India Company, the immensity of its capital employed, the superior quality of British manufactures, and the low rate at which they can be afforded in foreign markets, will always ensure to them the best part of the trade to India and China, and give to England a preference before the other maritime powers of Europe, or that of America. No naval power, therefore,

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except France, could feel any jealousy, nor entertain reasonable grounds of objection against the Cape becoming a settlement of the British Empire. They were all allowed to trade and to refresh on the same terms as British subjects, with this single exception, that an additional duty of 5 per cent. was payable on all goods brought into the Colony in foreign bottoms.

The possession of this settlement, at an early period of the war, so completely excluded every hostile power from the Indian seas, threw so great an increase of commerce into our hands by that exclusion, left us in such quiet and undisturbed dominion in the eastern world, and gave us so many solid advantages unexampled in any former war, that one would suppose it a moral impossibility for the East India Company to be unmindful of the source from whence they sprung. But things that are apparently of little value in themselves, are sometimes magnified by intense observation, swell into importance by discussion, and become indispensable by contention; whilst objects of real moment lose their magnitude when slightly viewed, or seen only at a distance, grow little by neglect, and useless without a quarrel. This observation may probably be applied to Malta and the Cape of Good Hope. Respecting the importance of the latter, the French seem to have avoided any discussion in the late negociation for peace. Their views were, no doubt, well known to our Government, and might have induced it, in the very first sketch of the conditions of peace, to propose that the Cape of Good Hope should be restored to the Dutch, or be declared a free port. The latter, however, happening to be just

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what France could have wished, was, on further consideration, restored in full sovereignty to its ancient possessors. France, finding that her purpose would be completely answered when once it was rescued out of the hands of the English, made no objection to this arrangement. Ceylon she considered as a less important sacrifice, although she knew it to be a much greater to Holland than that of the Cape. The latter has always been an expensive settlement to the Dutch, whilst from the former they derived a considerable revenue. Had the Cape been demanded on the part of England, there can be little doubt the French would have been equally eager in contesting the point in regard to this settlement as to Malta, knowing their vast importance to us as points of security.

I have no intention to discuss the comparative value of these two stations to England, considering them both to be essentially necessary to her independence as well as to the protection of her commerce and settlements, so long as the restless and aggrandizing spirit of the French Government shall continue to disturb the peace of Europe. It may not, however, be improper to endeavour to point out, and to compare some of the inconveniencies that would necessarily have resulted to our trade and settlements in the East Indies during the late war, from either one or the other of these places being in the hands of an ambitious enemy.

In the first place, it may be considered as a general principle that has long been rooted in the French Government, and from which it is likely never to depart, to aim at the overthrow

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of our power in India, and to endeavour to erect upon its ruins an empire of their own. To accomplish this point, and in consequence thereof, in the language of the present Corsican ruler, "To strike a blow at England which will be followed up with its complete destruction," they know there are but two roads to take: the one by getting possession of Egypt and Syria, where they might collect and season their troops for the grand expedition, either by sea or land; the other by occupying the Cape of Good Hope. Knowing the latter to be a desperate attempt, they were induced to make an experiment on the former. Had they, or their forced ally, the Dutch, kept possession of the Cape, there is no reason for supposing that the same fleet which sailed for Egypt, might not have sailed from some other port, to this station; or that they could not have slipped out from time to time almost any number of troops they might have thought proper to send. These troops, when seasoned and prepared at the Cape, for a warmer climate, could easily have been transported to the Isles of France and Bourbon, where the French would not only continue to draw supplies from the former, and to victual and provision their ships of war and transports from thence, as in the American war, but where they could not fail to have received a material reinforcement to their shipping from the Dutch; for it may be recollected, that the fleet under the command of Admiral Lucas reached Saldanha Bay, in spite of the obstacles which the Southern Atlantic presented, by the Cape being then in our hands. This fleet combined with that of the French would have required a naval force, on our part, in the Indian seas that might not have been quite convenient for us to spare. It is possible, also, they might have

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eluded the vigilance of our force, as their object would not have been so much to fight us, as to have put in execution a plan that many are inclined to suppose floated in the mind of Buonaparte when he took the road of Egypt, though he was soon convinced of the futility of it by that route, without at least double the number of troops; his whole army being barely sufficient to keep the conquered country in subjection.

Among many reasons, which led to this conjecture, was the work of *Mr. Anquetil Duperron* on India, which, after being withheld from publication for fifteen years on account of the information it contained, and of which it was supposed the English might avail themselves, was hastily issued from the press on the sailing of this memorable expedition; being intended, most probably, as a guide for the officers on their arrival in India. This intelligent writer, who, to a mind capable of observation and deep reflection, adds the great advantage of local knowledge, fixes on the coast of Malabar as the foundation and corner-stone of their long projected empire in India. The considerations which induce him to give this coast the preference are, among others, the facility of possessing the passes of the neighbouring mountains, and of thus securing the internal commerce of Hindostan—the opportunity it would afford of entering into an alliance with the Mahrattas, whom he considers as a warlike and faithful people—the easy intercourse that might be maintained from this coast with the Persian gulph, the Red Sea, the Isles of France and Bourbon, Madagascar, and the Cape of Good Hope.

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These are certainly important considerations, and demanded all the vigilance and attention of our Government in India. Even a small force of French troops, had they been thrown upon the coast of Malabar, at the very moment when our forces were drawn off into the Mysore, against the Sultaun's army, might have proved fatal to our possessions on this coast. The usurper would, no doubt, have obtained his reinforcement from the Isle of France, and probably without our knowledge, rendering, by their means, the conquest of Seringapatam doubtful. If, in such a state of things, the French forces could have gained a footing at Bombay, Goa, or Guzzarat, and intrigued themselves into an alliance with the Mahratta powers, though it might not have realized their project of an Indian empire, it would, at least, have been destructive of our possessions in the west of the peninsula, the holding of which, indeed, Mr. Anquetil considers as fatal to our power in India.

On this subject his opinion is not singular; before the overthrow of the Mysore kingdom, there were many of our own countrymen, whose sentiments in this respect accorded with his; and who, like himself, have not only a profound knowledge of Indian politics, but are well acquainted with the physical and moral character of the natives, their several connections and relations; and who, at the same time, possess the advantage that local information so eminently affords. The reduction of the Sultaun, it is true, has contributed in no small degree to our security on the Malabar coast; has consolidated our power in Southern India, and rendered the junction of foreign forces with the Mahratta chiefs more dif-

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ficult, if not altogether impracticable. On the northern parts of this coast only are we vulnerable in India by sea.

Supposing, however, the views of the enemy, on the Malabar coast, to have failed, they would, at least, have been enabled, with the assistance of the Dutch, to annoy and cut up our Indian and China trade by the multitude of cruizing vessels sent out from their islands of France and Bourbon, and from the Cape of Good Hope. Even under every disadvantage, the French frigates and the nest of privateers on the Mauritius station did much mischief at the commencement of the late war, and although they had few reinforcements from France, it required five years, with a very active and powerful squadron from the Cape and from India, before they were all taken and destroyed. What then must have been the case, if, instead of the English possessing this important station, it had been an enemy's port for assembling, refitting, and refreshing the combined fleets of the French and Dutch? It is unnecessary to observe, that neither of these powers would have found much difficulty in reaching the Cape with single ships, when we have an instance of a whole fleet of Dutch ships arriving there notwithstanding they were fifteen weeks on their passage. This single fleet, acting from the Cape, might have been productive of much inconvenience, expence, and injury to England, and especially to the trade of the East India Company. Were, indeed, the French and Dutch to keep up a proper naval force at this place, it is extremely doubtful if any of the homeward-bound fleets of the East India Company would ever reach England, or if they did, it would be under an expence of

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convoy so enormous, that the profits on the cargoes would be inadequate to meet it; but of this we shall have occasion to speak more particularly in the next chapter. Such are the dangers to be apprehended in consequence of the Cape being held by an enemy.

The principal disadvantages that would result to England by leaving Malta in the possession of France appear to be, in the first place, the power it would give them of excluding our ships from that port, the best, undoubtedly, in the Mediterranean, and of increasing their force there to the complete annihilation of our Mediterranean trade; and secondly, the means it would afford of facilitating their views upon Egypt, by enabling them to throw into that country a force sufficient to conquer it, and probably to renew their project upon India.

With regard to the extent and importance of the Mediterranean trade I speak with diffidence, but I am not apprehensive of hazarding much by saying that it admits not of a comparison with that of India and China, though, perhaps, too valuable to be altogether relinquished. In this respect then the value of Malta is certainly less important than that of the Cape of Good Hope. But the second point is of a more serious nature. Some, however, are of opinion, that although the subjugation of Egypt may at any time be accomplished by the French, through Malta, yet, in such an event, we have every reason to expect that the vigilance and activity of a British fleet, and the valor of British soldiers, might always enable us to dispute with them the passage of

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Syria. But that, admitting even they should succeed in collecting at Suez an army equal to their wishes, the difficulties of transporting this army to India would be almost insurmountable. If it be meant by those who support this opinion that the attempt is to be made by sea, whilst the Cape remained in our possession, I have little hesitation in agreeing with them that it must certainly fail. During the last war, when their troops had marched to Suez, they had not a single ship in the Red Sea that dared to carry the French flag, nor, with the Cape and Ceylon in our hands, could they at any future period have a fleet of any description without our permission.

But we will even allow them to have assembled at Suez a fleet of their own ships, or of the country coasters, sufficient to take on board their armament destined for the Malabar coast. The next question is, where, or in what manner, are they to victual and to provision such a fleet for a month or five weeks passage, and especially in the supply of the indispensable article of water? The fountains of Moses, it is true, furnish a supply of water at all seasons of the year, but they are situated at twelve miles distance from Suez. Water may be, likewise, and is, collected in tanks or reservoirs near the town, but it soon grows fetid. The difficulty, however, of victualling and watering such a fleet, though great, is not insurmountable, and therefore may be allowed to be got over.

The dangerous navigation of the Red Sea, in which it appears not fewer than fifteen armed ships were lost between

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the time of the French entering Egypt, and the signing of the definitive treaty of peace, is the next obstacle that presents itself, and which may also be surmounted. But as the navigation down this sea can only be performed six months in the year, on account of the periodical winds which there prevail, we can always know, within six months, when such a fleet would attempt to pass the narrow strait of Babelmandel, and be prepared accordingly. This strait is completely commanded by the island of Perim, against which there is no other objection but the want of water. If, however, we have allowed the French to surmount so many difficulties before they can arrive at the straits of Babelmandel, we may surely give ourselves the credit of being able to overcome this single objection against the island of Perim. A reservoir to collect and preserve rain water might be constructed; or, by digging below the level of the sea, fresh water would, in all probability, be obtained; or, at any rate, water might be transported thither from the continent, sufficient for the supply of the small garrison that would be necessary to protect the strait. The possession of this island, with a few frigates, is said to be competent to the destruction of all the craft that could possibly be collected and sent down from Suez and all the other ports of the Red Sea. Little, therefore, is to be apprehended from the designs of the French on India by the way of the Red Sea, so long as we can command the strait and victual the force necessary to be stationed there; advantages which the possession of the Cape and of Ceylon would always enable us to make use of.

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But if through the Cape the French can contrive to assemble and victual a large armament in the Indian Seas, we must have an immense force to prevent such an armament from co-operating with a body of troops that may previously have been thrown into Egypt and Syria, a plan which they probably intended to have carried into effect, had not the ambitious views of Buonaparte put us on our guard, and rendered the present war both just and necessary. Such a plan, by means of such a peace as the last, might easily be realized long before any intelligence of it could reach India, or any force be sent out from England to counteract it, were Malta and the Cape of Good Hope accessible to the French; but with the latter in our possession the attempt would be madness.

What the consequence might be of an attempt entirely by land, from Greece or Syria to India, is not quite so certain. If the emperor Paul had lived to carry into execution his wild but dangerous scheme, of assembling a large body of troops on the eastern borders of the Caspian Sea, to act in concert with the French, it is difficult to say where the mischief of their quixotism might have ended. The minds of men, intoxicated with power and maddened by ambition, are not to be measured by the same motives which commonly guide the actions of mankind. It is certain that neither Paul nor Buonaparte regarded the great waste of men that such a project would have occasioned. They must have known that by no precaution nor exertion could they have made sure of a constant supply of provisions for so vast a

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combined army; but such knowledge would not have prevented them from making the experiment, the lives of their people being objects of little consideration with them. If, like the host of Xerxes, they should be compelled to feed on grass and the shrubs of the thicket, or, like the army of Cambyses, in its march against the Ethiopians, be reduced to the still more dreadful necessity of killing every tenth man to feed the rest, what remorse would such calamities occasion in the breast of that man, who could deliberately put to death by poison the companions of his victories, for no other fault than the misfortune of being disabled by sickness?

Yet, although vast numbers would necessarily perish in such an enterprize, the result might, nevertheless, be the means of shaking our security in India; and this would be considered as a most ample compensation for any loss the enemy might sustain in the expedition. The obstacles that have been urged against it were, perhaps, equally great and numerous when the Macedonian hero undertook to march his army across the same countries; yet he overcame them all. And if Alexander could succeed in penetrating into India, why not Buonaparte, since military skill and tactics are now so much superior among Europeans to what they were in his day, whilst they have remained nearly stationary in the nations of the East? No sufficient reason can, perhaps, be assigned why the one, with the same or with increased means, and with talents, perhaps, not less suited to apply these means to the best advantage, should not be able to proceed to the same length that the other did.

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That no part of his army would ever return is extremely probable. When a considerable proportion had perished by fatigue, by sickness, and by famine, the rest, in all human probability, by change of climate, manner of living, and by intermarrying with a new people, would produce a new race, and that race would cease to be Frenchmen, just as the successors of Alexander ceased to be Greeks. An army for such an expedition must, in the outset, be immense, to afford a sufficient number of men to maintain the conquered countries through which they must pass. The farther they proceeded the more numerous would be the enemies left in their rear; and on their approach to India, there is no reason for supposing that the native powers would welcome their arrival, jealous, as they now must be, of admitting new European visitors, after the dearly bought experience they have already had of their old friends from the same quarter. These, however, are contingencies that amount to no security of a failure in the main object of the expedition, namely, the destruction of our empire in the east. We shall, perhaps, come nearest the mark by considering the most serious, and probably the only, obstacle that would impede their progress in the countries that lie between Syria and India, to be occasioned by the great difficulty of procuring provisions and transporting the baggage and ammunition that would be required for so large an army. But even these are difficulties which, by an enterprizing and determined mind, would be surmounted.

Whether the French really intended to march an army by land, in the event of their having reduced Acre and got pos-

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session of Syria, seems to be doubtful; but it is pretty evident they entertained hopes, at one time, of being able to co-operate with the Sultaun of Mysore by the Red Sea, though it does not appear that any previous plan had been concerted for transporting their troops from Egypt to India. The whole expedition, indeed, should seem to have been, in the first instance, a momentary thought, without any further plan or design than that of diverting the original intention of an armament, which was vauntingly called the Army of England. The fact seems to be, that the power and the influence of Buonaparte, who had the command of this army, had rendered him the object of jealousy and hatred to the Directory, who were equally glad with himself to have an excuse for changing the current of these vast preparations from a hazardous, almost hopeless, enterprize, whose failure would have ended in equal disgrace both to the Directory and their general, into a romantic expedition that had the sanction of the old government for the attempt, and, at all events, was more promising of success than the pretended invasion of the British islands. The fame of Buonaparte required, in fact, to be supported, at that time, by some new and signal adventure which might be the means of rescuing him from the secondary part the Directory had reserved for him, by the command of a pretended expedition against their only remaining enemy. In this situation some of his friends, it is supposed, suggested to him the conquest of Egypt, which had long been an object of the French Government under the monarchy. The brilliancy of such a conquest was well suited to the enterprizing spirit and ambitious views of the Corsican. It is supposed, also, that the memoir which

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the philosopher Leibnitz presented to Louis XIVth was put into his hands, and that the grand objects held out therein took strong possession of his mind. "*The sovereignty of the "seas—the Eastern Empire—the overthrow of the Porte—and "universal arbitration,*" were all to be accomplished by the conquest of Egypt, a conquest that was reserved for his mighty arm. "Soldiers," says he, on the departure of the expedition, "you are about to undertake a conquest, the effects of which, "upon commerce and civilization, will be incalculable; and "the blow it will give to England will be followed up with "its destruction."

But vain are often the hopes of man! The brilliancy of such a conquest, however alluring at a distance, seems to have faded on the approach. Whether his unsuccessful attempt against Acre had damped his ardour, and thrown an insurmountable barrier to any views he might have entertained against India, or whether he meant to be satisfied with annexing Egypt to the colonies of France, is still matter of conjecture; but it would seem from one of his letters, published in the intercepted correspondence, written at a time when he had not the least idea of being baffled in his schemes, and his army finally driven out by the English, that the acquisition of Egypt was the end of his design, and that his intention was to return to Paris as soon as the necessary arrangements could be made for its future government. His object, no doubt, as appears from his letters to the King of England and the Emperor of Germany, was to obtain a general peace, and by certain sacrifices on the part of France or its allies, to retain possession of this new colony, from whence, at some distant period,

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when he had assembled a sufficient force, and prepared the necessary quantity of shipping in the Red Sea, he might have availed himself of a favourable opportunity of making a descent on the Malabar coast. In such an event he was well aware that England, at that time, would never have relinquished the Cape of Good Hope, which he might therefore have proposed as an equivalent for Egypt. The importance which the French have attached to this half-way station between Europe and India, appears from the conferences which took place between Lord Malmesbury and Monsieur *De la Croix*, wherein the latter persisted that the Cape of Good Hope was of infinitely greater importance to England than the Netherlands were to France, and that if our demands for keeping it were acquiesced in, it should be considered as a full and ample compensation for them. "If," says he, "you "are masters of the Cape and Trincomalée, we shall hold all "our settlements in India, and the Isles of France and Bour-"bon entirely at the tenure of your will and pleasure; they "will be ours only as long as you choose we should retain "them; you will be sole masters in India, and we shall be "entirely dependent on you." On one occasion, he vehemently exclaimed, "Your Indian empire alone has enabled "you to subsidize all the powers of Europe against us, and "your monopoly of the Indian trade has put you in possession "of a fund of inexhaustible wealth!"

As the French, in all human probability, will very soon be deprived of all their colonies in the west, they will be the more anxious to increase their establishments in the east; and however limited might have been the extent of their

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views on the memorable expedition to Egypt, there cannot now be a difference of opinion on the subject. India is, undoubtedly their object, and to gain that object they will leave no measures untried, nor regard the sacrifice of thousands. They have now, indeed, stronger motives than ever for attempting the destruction of our power in the east. Driven from the most valuable of their West India settlements, by a conduct of which the consequences might easily have been foreseen, and in a fair way of losing the rest, they will seek for reparation in Egypt and in India, and I am persuaded that nothing, but our regaining possession of the Cape, will prevent them from making the attempt. That we should, at this moment, possess every strong point which may tend to check the career of an overwhelming and insatiable ambition, ought to be the wish of every nation of Europe. In vain would any of the inferior powers hope to meet a better fate under France if triumphant than Holland, Hanover, or Switzerland have experienced, where, before the palsying arm of Gallic tyranny had destroyed their health and vigour, the people were prosperous, happy, and free. Can Denmark or Sweden, Prussia or the principalities of Germany expect to be treated with more consideration than the Italian provinces have been? Will Spain and Portugal increase their influence, wealth, and commerce, by being degraded into tributary provinces of France, and do they promise themselves a better security of their colonies by the humiliating alliance? Nothing, surely, but the most morbid apathy, will prevent these, and others, to join the great powers of Europe now in arms, and endeavour to wipe off the disgrace that has already fallen on many, and which momentarily threatens them all. How is it possible

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that those powers, who have yet the means of rescuing Europe from universal misery, can remain inactive, and insensible of their own impending danger, when it is visible to all the world that the system rooted in the mind of the usurper is nothing short of universal and arbitrary dominion? an ambitious desire of reducing all Europe into Gallic provinces, as Asia fell under the yoke of Rome.

Nor would the dreadful effects of French aggrandizement be confined to Europe, were they not completely checked by the maritime power of Great Britain. Asia, Africa, and South America would soon be overrun with Frenchmen. No one can doubt, for a moment, what the fate of Egypt would be if England should relinquish the possession of Malta. The First Consul, indeed, in an unguarded moment of frenzy, has most unequivocally avowed it. The destruction of the Ottoman Government is another object of French ambition. One of the most intelligent of the French officers, in his correspondence with the Executive Directory, observes, "The "Ottoman Empire is generally regarded as an old edifice, tot-"tering to its fall. The European powers have long been "preparing to divide its scattered fragments, and many poli-"ticians conceive that the catastrophe is close at hand. In "this supposition, they think it but right that France should "have her share of the spoils; *and the part allotted to her* "*is Egypt.*"

But let those professed Cosmopolites, who, from principles of pretended humanity, declare themselves friends to the dismemberment of the Turkish Empire, reflect seriously on the

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consequences that would inevitably ensue were France concerned in the dissolution and partition of this government. However desirable it may seem to free the Greeks from the miserable yoke under which they long have groaned, yet a sudden transition from slavery to freedom would scarcely be borne with more moderation by the Grecks, than by the French at home or the negroes in the West India islands. Nor would the horrors of a revolution be confined to the Turkish provinces. The licentious army who might effect it, trained and accustomed to rapine and plunder, led on by needy or ambitious officers, who, on their part, are spurred by the aggrandizing views of their government, would not be content to sit down with Egypt as their share of the plunder. As Malta was the step that led them to Egypt, so would Egypt be to Syria, and Syria to the possession of India; to the plunder of that wealth which, in their opinion, is the great support of Britain. Thus would the scourge of their inordinate ambition be felt from the Nile to the Ganges, and from thence, in all probability, to the Yellow Sea. And by adverting to the geographical position of the southern extremity of Africa, in relation to other countries, and to the advantages it commands as a military station, we shall perceive with what ease might all the ports of South America be made subservient to their ambitious views, and how speedily that great continent from the isthmus of Darien to Terra del Fuego would fall into their insatiable grasp. The accomplishment of these objects, chimerical as they may appear, are prevented only by the transcendent and invincible strength of the British navy.

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As it must therefore obviously be the interest of the whole world that the restless and aggrandizing spirit of France should as effectually as possible be counteracted; and as both the Cape of Good Hope and Malta, if left in her possession, would forward her views at universal dominion, there seem to be no reasonable objections on the part of the other powers of Europe against these two grand points of security being left, at a general peace, in the hands of England, or, at all events being protected by English garrisons, as some guarantee against the designs of the general enemy of the human race.

As the importance of every military station must depend, in a considerable degree, on the sufficiency of the works that either are already constructed for its defence against internal or external attack, or on the local advantages it possesses of being rendered defensible, it may be expected I should here say something on this subject. Being no professional man, I am aware, in doing this, of the risk I run of laying myself open to the censure of some who are so, particularly as I have heard so many and such contrary opinions advanced as to the best means of attacking and of defending the Cape of Good Hope. The little I have to offer on the subject will be chiefly descriptive; and as to the defence of the place, my ideas will be grounded on the opinion of those whose skill in their professions, and whose sound judgment in the ordinary affairs of life, joined to their local knowledge, entitle such opinion to some degree of consideration. It may be observed, however, that there are not, perhaps, two officers who perfectly agree on this subject.

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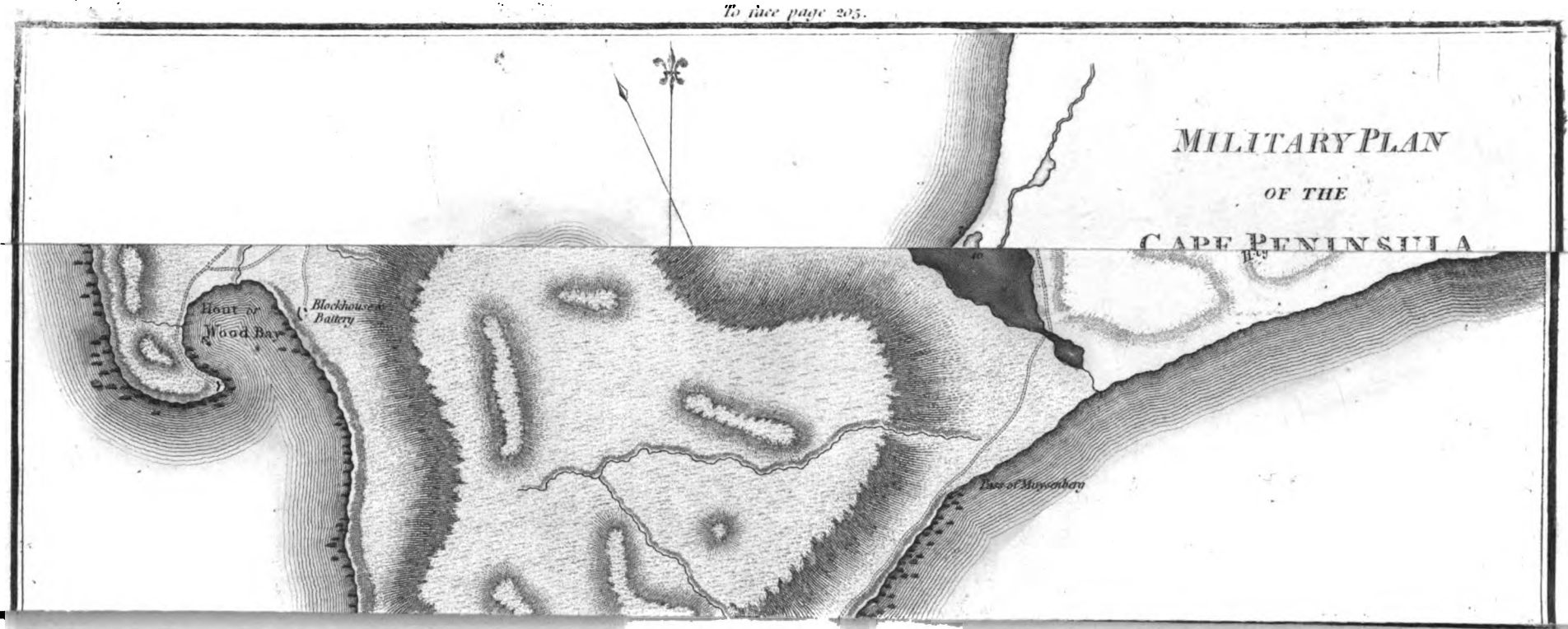

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In speaking of the defence of the Cape of Good Hope, I mean to confine the observations I have to make to the peninsular promontory, including the two bays, which are the usual resort of shipping. And for the better illustration of what follows, I have added a military map of the said peninsula, the outline of which was taken, I believe, some years ago by a French engineer, was afterwards filled up by different officers in the Dutch service, and was examined, corrected, and verified with great care and accuracy, by Captain (now Lieutenant-Colonel) Bridges of the British engineers, under whose directions several new and important works were constructed by order of Sir James Craig. For the sake of conveniency, I found it necessary to reduce the scale to half the size of the original drawing, and have added to the Dutch scale of roeds one of English yards, the former being to the latter as $4\frac{115}{1000}$ to 1.

This military plan, together with the charts of the bays, I have thought it expedient to publish, as multiplied copies of them are in the possession not only of the government and officers at the Cape, but also of French officers in Europe; and it is presumed they may be of use hereafter, especially to those who may be sent on an expedition against this important settlement, and who may not have had the opportunity of collecting a competent share of local information; which, however, is extremely desirable, where operations are to be carried on against an extensive and dangerous coast. For such a purpose, those only ought to be selected who are well acquainted, not only with the fortified peninsula, but also with the different bays and passes of the country, the manners of

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the colonists and their resources, and, above all, with the habits of the native Hottentots.

Cape Town, which may be called the capital of the colony, is situated on the south-east angle of Table Bay. It usually happens that the advantages of the bay, in forming a new settlement, determine the choice of the site for the town; but, in this instance, the convenience of a plentiful stream of pure limpid water, rushing out of the Table Mountain, was the primary object to which the bay was subservient. Had this not been the case, the first settlers would unquestionably have given the preference to Saldanha Bay, whose only defect is the want of fresh water in the vicinity; whereas Table Bay is faulty in every point that constitutes a proper place for the resort of shipping; and so boisterous, for four months in the year, as totally to exclude all ships from entering it.

As this point of the peninsula became, however, the seat of the petty concerns in which the Dutch Eaft India Company allowed its servants to traffic, and, under certain restrictions, the other settlers to carry on with foreign ships, a commerce that was chiefly confined to the supply of provisions and refreshments in exchange for Indian and European articles, they found it necessary to build a fort for the protection of their property and of the Company's warehouses against the attempts of the natives.

As the trade to India increased, and the Cape, in consequence, became more frequented, it was deemed expedient to extend the works, and to erect a citadel that should serve

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as a defence against any attack either by land or by sea. This citadel is the present castle, a regular pentagon fort, with two ravelins and some other trifling outworks, and surrounded by a wet ditch; but so injudiciously placed, in the very lowest part, or sink, of the valley that, although it commands the town and part of the anchorage, it is itself commanded by the ground rising from it in a gradual slope to the Devil's Hill, which renders it on this side not defensible. This slope is now occupied as high as the commencement of the perpendicular rocky side of the Devil's Hill, by various redoubts, batteries, and block-houses commanding each other and the advance ground to the castle, all of which were added by Sir James Craig.

During the American war, when the French were at the Cape, they threw up lines with two redoubts to protect the approach to the castle on the land side, the expence of which they defrayed in paper money. These lines, however, extending no farther up the tongue of land that projects from the Devil's Hill, than the point, No. 12, in the map, were liable to be turned between that point and the craggy summit D; a manœuvre, I believe, which General Craig intended to put in practice, provided the Dutch, after being driven out of Wynberg, were disposed to make a stand at the French lines. He therefore, very properly, ordered a battery and block-house to be constructed immediately under D, and a second a little lower down the hill, which, with the two redoubts in the lines, and Fort de Knokke at their extremity on the shore of Table Bay, being all within the compass of 3000 yards, would enable the garrison to keep up such a cross

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and concentrated fire, as to prevent any moderate number of troops from attempting to force the lines in their approach to the town from Simon's Bay, without a very considerable loss of men. And, in order to strengthen the northern extremity of the lines, and, at the same time, to cover the landing place at the mouth of, and passage across, the Salt River, he added a bomb-proof tower and battery at G, both of which bear his name. Notwithstanding, however, the strength of these lines, the officers of the Dutch garrison, now at the Cape, were of opinion that the most eligible mode of attacking the town would be to force the lines, though at the expence of a few men, after which the castle must immediately fall; and many English officers are of the same opinion.

Fort Knokke is connected with the citadel by a rampart drawn along the shore, called the Sea lines, defended by several batteries, mounted with heavy guns, and furnished with ovens for heating shot. Within these lines is a powder magazine, and a long range of low buildings that were converted, under the English government, into a general hospital, with lodgings for the inspector, storekeeper, and apothecary to the forces.

On the west of the bay are three strong batteries at the points K, L, M, the Rogge-bay battery, the Amsterdam battery, and the Chavonne battery, the guns of which all bear directly upon the anchorage. At N is also a small battery, called the Mouillé, commanding the entrance of the bay; for all ships, when coming in, keep the point of the Mouillé close on board, and go out of the bay between Robben Island

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and the continent. A little farther, at the point O, where there is a small sandy cove, a work was thrown up with a few light guns and a furnace for heating shot, to prevent a landing at this place, which they have further endeavoured to impede by fixing three anchors across the inlet. A very few shot from one of our frigates soon, however, dislodged the enemy from this work.

At Camp's Bay, on the western coast of the peninsula, there are also a few small batteries, and a military post on the height above it, directly between the Table Mountain and the Lion's Head. An almost perpetual surf rolls upon the sandy beach of Camp's Bay, otherwise, this might be considered as a very vulnerable point. An army landing here, and at Three Anchor Bay, might take the town and all the batteries in their rear, or, which would still be more important, might get possession of the Lion's Rump at F, from whence, with a few howitzers, the town and citadel, and the strong batteries on the west side of Table Bay, would be completely commanded. And this hill has the very great advantage of not being commanded by any other point.

So fully convinced was Sir James Craig of the vast importance of this situation, that he proposed to Government, in the event of the Cape remaining in our possession, to erect a citadel upon it, with buildings for every military purpose, such as barracks for the garrison, houses for an hospital, buildings for the ordnance department, for military stores, and for at least twelve months' provisions. Such a fortification, when properly completed, would, in the opinion of Sir

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James, be ably defended, in time of war, by 1200 men; and would render the town, the batteries, and the castle untenable by an enemy, all of which might be totally destroyed from this height in four-and-twenty hours. The most intelligent of the officers of the Dutch garrison, now at the Cape, were precisely of the same opinion, and immediately pointed out the situation as the most eligible for erecting a citadel. The Dutch Government, however, are not in circumstances at present to undertake a work of such magnitude and expence, not being able to raise funds adequate to meet the subsistence of the troops, and the contingent and extraordinary expences of the garrison, though it consists of less than two thousand men.

The greatest difficulty, in occupying this situation for such a purpose, would be the want of water; but it is by no means an insurmountable difficulty. Twelve hundred men, at a daily allowance of a quart to each man, would consume, in twelve months, 109,500 gallons, and a cistern, capable of containing this quantity, would not be required to exceed a square of twelve yards, provided the depth be about four yards and a half. And two cisterns of these dimensions would be fully adequate for every purpose that the garrison would require.

Another objection, however, was started, grounded on the opinion of some of the artillery officers in the service of the East India Company, who conceived the Lion's Hill to be within point blank shot of the Devil's Hill, the slope of which, even below the rocky summit, is at least twice the

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height of the former, and consequently commands it. These gentlemen, who are supposed to be among the best informed of the Company's officers, may be very good artillery officers, but they are certainly bad judges of distance in a mountainous country; for, as Sir James Craig has observed, the nearest point of the Devil's Hill is at the distance of 3700 yards; but that, in order to get any thing like a level with the part of the Lion's Rump, on which the most considerable part of the works would be placed, it would be necessary to go farther back on the slope of the Devil's Hill, at least five hundred yards, and even then the elevation on the latter would not be equal to that point on which the said works were intended to be situated; so that the point blank range of the Company's artillery officers is, at least, 4200 yards. Sir James observes, that a residence of fourteen months at the Cape, since he gave his opinion on this subject, and a continued and unremitting study to render the place as defensible as possible, had only served to confirm him in it; an opinion, indeed, which perfectly coincided with that of Lieutenant-Colonel Bridges, as well as with that of every intelligent officer who has been on duty at the Cape, not only among the English, but also among the French, Dutch, and German officers now serving there.

Near the narrowest part of the peninsula, on the western shore, are two contiguous bays called Hout or Wood Bay, and Chapman's Bay; the latter communicating, by a defile of the mountains about 5400 yards in length, with Vis or Fish Bay close to Simon's Bay; and the former, by another defile, with the great road leading from Cape Town to Si-

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mon's Bay. There appears to be no instance on record of any ship going into Chapman's Bay, it being completely exposed to all the prevailing winds that blow at the Cape, and, in consequence, seldom free from a heavy swell of the sea. Were it, indeed, ever so secure and convenient for landing troops, all the advantages it holds out would be obtained by a landing at Simon's Bay. This is not the case, were an enemy to effect a landing at Hout Bay to the northward of it; as, from this place, they would be enabled to make their approach to the lines, after passing a defile of the mountains which is totally unoccupied.

Hout Bay affords safe and convenient anchorage for eight or ten ships; and has a rivulet of fresh water falling into it from the back part of Table Mountain; but the getting out of the bay is supposed to be very difficult and precarious, on account of the eddy winds from the surrounding mountains when they are moderate in the Offing, or from the south-easterly winds setting into the entrance; as well as from the constant westerly swell and wind prevailing from that quarter in the winter season. Captain Blanket, however, in the year 1784, when he commanded the Nymph sloop of war, ran, out of curiosity, into Hout Bay, at which the Dutch were exceedingly jealous and angry, none of them having ever seen a ship there before. It is now defended with a battery and a block-house, situated on an eminence which is too high to be successfully attacked by ships of war.

As to Simon's Bay, which lies on the eastern side of the peninsula, in the great bay of False, and is the usual resort

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of shipping for five months in the year, it should seem the Dutch had no idea of their colony being attacked from that quarter, as there are only two small batteries mounting four or five guns each, to which ships of the line may approach within 500 yards; and the strong ground at Muisenberg was entirely unoccupied before the British expedition appeared in the bay; the few works and batteries, with which they attempted to defend this ground, were constructed between the time of its arrival in the bay and the day the troops marched for the Cape. But though the Dutch at that time suffered themselves to be easily driven out of this pass, they are now too well acquainted with its strength and importance to abandon it so speedily, should an enemy again attempt a landing in Simon's Bay. In fact there is no other road to Cape Town but at the foot of this mountain washed by the waves of False Bay. It is the Thermopylæ of the Cape; and so strong a position that, with the assistance of the several breast-works constructed while in our possession, a *chosen band* of 300 riflemen might stop the progress of an army.

For the complete defence of the various works upon the Cape peninsula, which I have just enumerated, a garrison of five thousand men has been considered, by all who are acquainted with the place, as the very least force that would be required; and, consequently, no part of it could, with propriety, be detached into the interior, without exposing the garrison to danger. The colony, indeed, is so extensive, having an unprotected coast of 580 miles from Cape Point to the Kaffer country on the east, and of 315 miles from Cape

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Point to the River Koussie on the north, that an army of ten thousand men would scarcely be sufficient to keep out an enemy, if he were determined to effect a landing. A large force, however, landed at any great distance from the Cape, could not possibly be subsisted. At Mossel Bay it might, perhaps, receive a small supply of corn, but no cattle; at Plettenberg's Bay, neither the one nor the other. At Algoa Bay an enemy might, at all times, create a great deal of mischief, by putting arms into the hands of the Kaffers and Hottentots, who might very easily be encouraged to drive the whole colony within the limits of the Cape peninsula; a measure, by which the garrison and the settlers would be reduced to the danger of starving for want of provisions. It is obvious that such a step would be attended with the ruin of the settlement, and would not, on that account, be resorted to but by a desperate or a Machiavelian enemy. The Dutch, I understand, have stationed at this bay near three hundred troops, to keep the peace between the boors, the Kaffers, and the Hottentots, but the greater part would, undoubtedly, be withdrawn on receiving intelligence of the present war; the weakness of the garrison not admitting of so large a detachment being sent off the peninsula.

One effectual way of distressing the garrison would be to land detachments at various points not very distant from the Cape Peninsula; as, for instance, at Saldanha Bay, from whence, by getting possession of Roode Sand Kloof, all supplies of cattle would be cut off from the interior—at Gordon's Bay, in the north-east corner of False Bay, whose proximity to Hottentot Holland's Kloof would afford an easy

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possession of that important pass which, being defensible by a very few men, would completely cut off all communication with the district of Zwellendam and the eastern parts of the colony—and, if the attempt was made in the month of December, a detachment landed near Blauwberg opposite to Robben Island would intercept the annual supply of corn, which, in the beginning of the year, is always transported to the Cape. The garrison would then be obliged to abandon their forts to dispute those posts or starve within their lines, as they never have a stock of provisions in store, and are particularly reduced at this season of the year.

Some, however, are of opinion that the place would best be taken by a *Coup de Main*, by dashing at once into Table Bay in a south-east wind, and cutting out all the ships that may happen to be at anchor. In doing this, they would have to sustain the fire of Craig's tower and battery, Fort de Knokke, the sea lines and the castle, beside the three heavy batteries on the west coast of the bay. There are few places, perhaps, where so great a fire can be concentrated, as may be brought to bear on the anchoring ground of Table Bay. The batteries are mounted with a considerable number of heavy guns; but, it is true, they are very old; a great part of them honeycombed, and the carriages of many completely demolished. The Amsterdam battery has also many defects, and, in the opinion of some naval officers, would soon be silenced by a single ship of the line, brought to lie close alongside of it. It must be recollected, however, that in this situation she would be flanked by the Chavonne battery, and have to sustain the fire of that of Rogge Bay.

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Others are of opinion, that a moderate force of infantry and artillery, landed at Three Anchor Bay, might easily succeed in getting possession of Amsterdam battery in the rear, as well as the Chavonne and Rogge Bay batteries, after which the castle would no longer be tenable, and the town would be at the mercy of the attacking party. This is very true, if the landing could be reduced to a certainty; but this bay is a mere narrow creek, choaked with anchors, and nine days out of ten subject to a heavy rolling swell that makes it dangerous for a boat to attempt a landing. Perhaps the strongest impression might be made by combining the operations agreeably to the two opinions; though a large force might probably prefer landing on the eastern beach of Table Bay, where there is nothing to interrupt them, cross the Salt River, and carry the lines by a *Coup de Main*, after which, as I have before observed, the castle must immediately fall, and the garrison surrender at discretion.

The Dutch garrison, at the evacuation of the colony by the English, in March 1803, were certainly not capable of opposing any extraordinary resistance, or to defend the place against a spirited attack, conducted by an officer of skill and local experience; and their numbers since that time have considerably been reduced. Three or four ships of the line, with four thousand men, would be fully sufficient to carry their point; provided the Dutch should receive no reinforcements from the French, which, hitherto, there are no grounds for supposing to be the case. The whole garrison, when complete, was intended to consist of three thousand men; of these were already arrived, at that time, barely two thousand,

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consisting in a regiment of the Prince of Waldec, about six hundred strong; three hundred cavalry; three hundred artillery; two or three companies of grenadiers, and the rest *jagers* or a light rifle corps, totally undisciplined, and composed of almost every nation on the face of the earth, being, for the most part, deserters from German regiments. And, with regard to the artillery, they were so miserably defective that, out of the whole corps, they could not select a sufficient number of trained men to fire the salutes intended to be made on hoisting the Dutch flag on the first of January; but made application to the commanding officer of the British artillery, for a party to assist them: yet, when the orders for the surrender of the colony were countermanded, and it became a probable event that hostilities would ensue, it was industriously circulated by the Dutch officers, or rather by the French officers nominally in the Dutch service, that their corps of artillery was in the highest state of discipline and order, the greater part of the men having distinguished themselves at the battle of Marengo! They were commanded, however, as well as the cavalry, by active and intelligent officers.

The services of the *Burgher Cavalry* are not likely ever to be again demanded. Were they, indeed, ever so well disposed to fight, the number that it would be found practicable to raise is far from being great. Those who dwell in the interior parts of the settlement would find it extremely inconvenient to quit their homes, on account of their slaves and Hottentots, who might be induced to take advantage of their absence; and the Cape district, containing only about

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six thousand souls, could not be supposed to furnish more than a thousand men fit to bear arms, and, probably, not one hundred that would dare to use them.

The Hottentot corps, consisting of about five hundred men, so far from feeling any disposition to enter into the service of the Dutch, actually declined it, and expressed the strongest wishes to return to their connections in the distant parts of the colony. What may be the fate of these poor creatures, under their old masters, is difficult to conjecture. Convinced, as the Dutch Government would speedily be, that they would never be prevailed on to draw a trigger against the English, it will become a very serious difficulty in what manner to dispose of them. If they should desert in a body, which was generally thought would be the event, they would drive in the whole country. But if, before this happens, the humane colonists should succeed in obtaining the prayer of two petitions presented by them, the government will be relieved from any apprehensions with regard to the Hottentot corps: one of which was to surround and massacre the whole corps; the other, to put a chain to the leg of every man, and distribute them among the farmers as slaves for life.

The only chance they have of escaping rests upon the good intentions of the Governor and Commander in Chief towards them, from whose humane disposition, and honorable character, they will receive every protection and support, as far, at least, as depends upon him; but, in a revolutionary government, the best disposed must, in some degree, swim with the torrent of popular opinion.

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One single ship of war, the Bato of 68 guns, remained in Table Bay, preparing to follow two others of the same class, the Pluto and the Kortenaar, to Batavia. She has since been condemned as totally unfit for service. None of these three ships had any of their lower-deck guns on board, and were only half manned; being intended, though under the command of an Admiral, to take on board, and carry to Europe, cargoes of coffee. Three frigates had sailed a few months before for the same purpose, under the command of Commodore Melisse, and two others formed part of Rear-Admiral Dekker's squadron; so that the Dutch had, at that time, in the Eastern Seas, three ships of the line and five fine frigates, which, however, were in no condition to add much lustre to the Batavian flag.

The ammunition and stores that were found at the capture, together with those that were given over by the British Government, at the surrender, to the amount of about twenty thousand pounds value, will serve for many years, not only as a supply of the garrison, but also of the Isles of France and Bourbon. The great barrack, situated between the town and the castle, was put into thorough repair, and fitted up with bedding and other necessaries for the reception of two thousand men; and the citadel, capable of containing one thousand men, with lodgings for the officers, was intended to be put into the same condition.

Recent accounts mention the deplorable state of the colony under its new government. The revenues are so reduced as to be totally inadequate to meet the expences of the garrison,

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and they have no hope of any supply from Holland. New taxes were imposed on the inhabitants, which they refused to pay. The people detested the government, and the government was afraid of the troops. The garrison was in a complete state of insubordination; several were under trial for mutiny, and numbers were daily deserting with their arms. Universal discontent and general distress prevailed. All credit was at an end, money had totally disappeared, the little commerce they had was destroyed, bankruptcies were without number, and a war was only wanting to complete their misery. Under such circumstances, it is not unreasonable to conclude that the Cape will fall an easy conquest to a British force.

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CHAP. III.

Importance of the Cape of Good Hope, considered as a Naval Station.

When one reflects, for a moment, on the diminutive space that the British islands occupy on the surface of the globe, in comparison with the large portions which some nations enjoy, and considers their detached and remote situation by which their inhabitants were, in the opinion of the ancients,

> "*Toto ab orbe divisos,*"
> "Cut off from the rest of mankind:"

when, at the same time, one bears in mind the vast weight and preponderance these little islands have long maintained in the history and transactions of almost all the governments and nations which constitute this world of human beings, it is impossible to withhold our wonder and admiration at a phenomenon which, at first sight, wears the appearance of being so much out of the ordinary course of things. In vain should we search for a parallel in the history of the world, because the history of the world affords no example of a country where property has so much weight, where it affords so much enjoyment, and where it is so well secured by just and equal laws, as in Great Britain.

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Exertions to amass wealth will, generally, be proportional to the stability that is given to property. Hence, the enterprizing spirit of Britons has collected the riches of the world within their fortunate islands. Hence, the great and stupendous works of convenience, utility, and magnificence, that embrace the shores of the Thames, the Mersey, the Severn, and most of the navigable rivers of the empire which, whilst they facilitate the purposes of commerce, add splendor and ornament to the country, and serve as notable monuments of a powerful and opulent nation. But, although the seat of empire, the central point of power and wealth, is fixed in the British islands, yet, if we cast our eyes on the map of the world, and skim along the western shores of the Atlantic, thence descend to the Southern Pacific, and return easterly to the Indian Seas, we shall there find that the possessions of Britain comprise "a vast empire on which the sun "never sets, and whose bounds nature has not yet ascer-"tained."

Whatever philosophers may advance on the subject of the wealth of nations depending on the encouragement given to agriculture, it cannot be denied that the wealth and the influence of the British empire derive their source and their main-spring from commerce. It is to commerce we owe our colonies, and to our colonies the perfection of navigation. For, after all the objections that have been urged against the colonizing system, it is pretty evident that, without foreign possessions, we should have few seamen. The mere carrying-trade is so precarious, and so liable to be affected by every

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little incident that may involve the nation carrying it on, in its relations with contending powers, that no degree of stability can be assigned to it. As long as the Portugueze maintained their territories and their dominion in the East, the Portugueze navigators were the first among Europeans in reputation; but no sooner had the Dutch deprived them of the best part of their possessions, than the whole of the carrying-trade fell into the hands of the Dutch; and the Dutch flag maintained the superiority in the East, and was respectable in the West.

As the Dutch began to lose their colonies, the Americans snatched the remains of their carrying-trade, which, while they preserve a state of neutrality, they will not only maintain but improve to a very great extent; but, having no foreign possessions, the instant they go to war with a nation that has, their carrying-trade will in all probability fall to the ground. Such will be the case also with the Danes and the Swedes; and such has France found, by experience, to be her fate from the moment she lost her best colonies.

The number of hands that are required to work the ships employed in transporting to England the produce of our colonies furnish for the navy, in time of war, an immediate supply of skilful and able-bodied seamen: giving it, at once, a decided superiority over that of all other nations. The French, the Dutch, and the Spaniards can construct their ships fully as well as, and some of them, perhaps, better than, the English; but none of them can make such good seamen. The rough and resolute character that is necessary to form

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good sailors, would appear to be incompatible with the frivolous and flexile tempers of Frenchmen. Their natural versatility disqualifies them for situations that require steady perseverance; and the trifling gaiety of their disposition is ill suited to the order and discipline that are indispensable on board of a ship. In a gale of wind, it is said to be a matter of the greatest difficulty to prevail on a sufficient number of Frenchmen, in a whole ship's company, to go aloft for the purpose of taking in the sails; and if the gale comes on suddenly, the odds are great that the masts are carried away, or the sails blown from the yards.

Both men and officers are averse to long voyages, and are seldom inclined to pass a friendly port. To possess the advantage of having such ports, in different parts of the world, is of the first importance to their navigation and commerce. They pay little attention to cleanliness, either in their persons or ships, and they are generally very much crowded; hence, a long voyage, without refreshments, is seldom unattended with disease and mortality.

The Dutch seamen are steady, persevering, and intrepid; and, of all nations, have maintained the hardest struggles with the English; but they are habitually slow and inactive. That they are not physically so, the crew of the Rattlesnake sloop, a great part of which were Dutchmen, afforded a sufficient proof, when they engaged, in the most gallant and active manner, the La Preneuse frigate, which they drove out of Algoa Bay. By example and a little practice, they overcome the dull and sluggish motion to which they have

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been accustomed, and soon become capable of prompt and vigorous action.

The Dutch sailors, it seems, are always glad of an opportunity to serve in English ships, where they have the reputation of being a quiet, orderly, and obedient people. The manner in which they are fed, in their own ships, is little calculated to give them encouragement. The captains of the men of war are, at the same time, the pursers; and they feed their men by contract, which, stipulating for quantity only, leaves the quality to the discretion and the conscience of the captain. The Dutch ships of war that were sent out, with the governor and troops on board, to take possession of the Cape, had a remarkably long passage, which occasioned the Dutch sailors on board our ships to observe, that the captain's musty peas, rancid pork, and black bread were not consumed, before which it would not be his interest to come into port where better articles were to be had. The same sailors got hold of some of their bread, which they carried through the streets of Cape Town, tied to the end of a stick, by way of a joke, it being so very black as to have more the appearance of animal excrement, baked in the sun, than of bread.

On the present plan of navigating their ships, the Dutch would find it impracticable to proceed from Europe to India without breaking the voyage. The unfavorable form of their vessels for moving quickly through the water, the little sail they carry, especially by night, the economical plan in which they are fitted out, forbidding the use of copper sheathing,

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and the bad provisions laid in for the people, are all against a long continued voyage. The mortality that sometimes prevails on board their Indiamen, even on short passages, is almost incredible. Mr. Thunberg informs us, and his veracity may be depended on, that the mortality on board the ship which carried him to the Cape, after a voyage of three months and a half from the Texel, amounted to one hundred and fifteen; that three other ships in the same fleet suffered still more in proportion to their crews, the *Hoenkoop* having buried one hundred and fifty-eight; the *William Vth* two hundred and thirty; and the *Jonge Samuel* of *Zeeland* one hundred and three men!

It may be considered, indeed, as next to a physical impossibility for a Dutch ship to run from the Texel to Batavia without stopping. The possession we held of their old half-way house, the Cape, was so severe a blow to their navigation in the Eastern Seas, that, after the capture of Lucas's fleet in Saldanha Bay, there was not, in the course of five years, a single Dutch ship of any description that ventured to the southward of the line. The convenience of refreshing at the Cape is absolutely necessary to, and inseparably connected with, the Dutch trade to India. The Spaniards and Portugueze are equally averse to long passages, without refreshing, as the French and Dutch. The Danes, the Swedes, and Americans less so, because their provisions, in general, are more wholesome, and their ships more cleanly: yet, to all these, an intermediate port is always considered as an object worthy of attention.

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To the English the intervention of a port, in the longest voyages, is the least important; and many commanders, of late years, have been so little solicitous on this point, as to prefer making the run at once, rather than suffer the delay and impediment occasioned by calling for refreshments on the passage. The commanders, indeed, of the British ships, in general, are so well acquainted with the nature of the fixed and periodical winds (the Trades and Monsoons), and with making the most of those that are variable, that distant voyages are now reduced almost to a certain duration. The old system, still, perhaps, too rigidly adhered to in the navy, of endeavouring to place the ship's head in the direction of her intended port, is entirely exploded by the commanders of ships in the employ of the East India Company. It may answer the purpose in the British Channel, and near land, but is ill suited for a long voyage, through climates where the wind undergoes but little change. The squadron of men of war, which brought away the garrison, on the evacuation of the Cape, were twelve weeks on their passage, whilst the Sir Edward Hughes Indiaman, which left the Cape a week later, was three weeks in England sooner, than the said squadron. A passage from China, which formerly was reckoned from ten to twelve months, is now reduced to four months, and has been made in a hundred days.

This rapidity in skimming over the ocean, reduced, as nearly as the nature of such a loco-motion will allow, to a certainty, added to the superior quality, as well as abundance, of provisions that are laid in for the voyage, has rendered it a matter of perfect indifference to English seamen, in point of

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health, whether the run be made at once, or the voyage be broken for the sake of obtaining refreshments at some intermediate port. This being the case, the former method is usually preferred, and much delay, as well as expence, is thereby avoided.

Since, however, all maritime expeditions and transactions are, in a very peculiar degree, liable to accident and misfortune, it must always be considered as a desirable object to have some neighbouring port to resort to in case of urgent necessity. In the short voyage to the ports of the Levant and others in the Mediterranean, Malta, and a number of other islands, present themselves as places of refuge for ships in distress. The bay of Madeira lies open to the outward bound ships in the West India trade, and the Western Islands, if necessary, may be approached on the return-voyage. And, although the Portugueze settlement of Rio de Janeiro in South America is not greatly out of the way of ships, in their outward-bound passage to the East Indies and China, nor the island of Saint Helena on their return, yet it cannot be denied that the Cape of Good Hope is infinitely preferable to both of these places, since it not only divides the passage more equally, but supplies, in general, better refreshments, and in greater plenty, and is alike convenient for shipping to touch at, whether in their outward or homeward-bound voyage.

In the early periods of foreign navigation, the ships of every nation, trading to the East Indies, found it convenient to call at the Cape for water and fresh provisions, long before

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it was taken possession of, in form, by any European power. The native Hottentots, at that time, were numerous on the Cape peninsula, and rich in cattle, which they supplied to passing ships on easy terms.

In the reign of John IId of Portugal, Bartholomew Diaz made the first successful attempt to reach the southern promontory of Africa, which he effected in the year 1487; but whether he quarrelled with the natives, and was driven away by them, as some historians have pretended, seems to be doubtful. Vasco-de-Gama, ten years afterwards, touched at the Cape, but made no attempt to form a settlement there. Next to Vasco-de-Gama, was the Portugueze Admiral Rio d'Infanté, who strongly recommended to his Government the establishment of a colony on the southern coast of Africa; and fixed upon the mouth of a river for that purpose, to which was given his own name, and which is now called the Great Fish River. Some other attempts, by different Portugueze navigators, were made to colonize the Cape, but they all failed.

After this the English and the Dutch were frequent visitors to the bays of the Cape.

The English, in their outward-bound voyage, had a custom of burying their dispatches for the directors, and to point out where they were to be found by cutting a sentence, to that effect, on some large blue stone laid on a particular spot. The intelligence, engraven on the stone, was usually limited to the name of the ship and captain, the date of her arrival

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and departure, and it ended with " Look for letters (in such " or such direction) from this stone." Two or three stones of this kind are built into the castle wall, and are still legible. The Dutch used to bury, on a certain spot on Robben Island, a register of the state of their vessels and cargoes, outward bound, which the next ship, in coming home, took up and carried to Holland for the information of the Directors.

In this manner the English, the Dutch, and the Portugueze continued, for more than a century, to refresh at the Cape, without any design, on the part of the two former, of appropriating the soil; until the year 1620, when Andrew Shillinge and Humphrey Fitzherbert, two commanders of two fleets of English ships bound for Surat and Bantam, took a formal possession of the soil for, and in the name of, King James of Great Britain, because they discovered that the Dutch intended to establish a colony there the following year; and " because they thought it better that the Dutch, or any other " nation whatsoever, should be his Majesty's subjects in this " place, than that his subjects should be subject to them " or any other." It was not, however, until a period of more than thirty years had expired after this event, that the representations of Van Riebek, stating the richness of the soil, the mildness of the climate, the advantage it would give to the Dutch, as a colony, over other nations, whose ships would all be obliged to touch there, and, above all, the barrier it would afford to their Indian dominions, prevailed on the Directors of the Dutch East India Company to form a regular establishment at the Cape.

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Their original intention was to limit their possessions to the Cape peninsula, and the two bays that are separated by the isthmus; considering it only, as it had hitherto been, as a place for refreshing and refitting their ships. But the number of settlers that crept in, from time to time, made it necessary to cross the isthmus, and, by presents and promises, to obtain from the natives the cession of a tract of land to which they gave the name of Hottentot's Holland. Having discovered that the predominant passion of this feeble people was the love of spirituous liquors and tobacco, and that pieces of iron and glass beads were considered among the first necessities, they negociated for whole tracts of land with these pernicious drugs and paltry baubles. A cask of brandy was the price of a whole district, and nine inches in length of an iron hoop the purchase of a fat ox. The natives, however, it would seem, had no idea of resigning, for ever, to a foreign nation, the ground that was necessary for feeding their own cattle; but conceived it could only be intended for temporary use, and that, in time, their visitors would depart from the country as other Europeans had hitherto done for the last century and an half; but, when they observed them building houses and fortifications, sowing and planting the ground, and rearing their own cattle, they began to be jealous of the encroachments of their new neighbours, and commenced hostilities with a view to expel them. These hostilities terminated, as is usual in such cases, in the further extension of the Dutch settlement, and in an increase of troops and colonists from Europe.

Still, however, the Dutch East India Company endeavoured to limit the Cape to the original design of a port for refreshing

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their ships. They threw every obstacle in the way of its becoming a flourishing settlement; allowed no trade whatsoever but what passed through the hands of their own servants, and made it dependent on the Governor-General of Batavia; concluding, that the settlers would thus be made equally submissive to their orders from Europe, and from the seat of their influence and wealth in the East. It foresaw, perhaps, that a spirit of industry, if encouraged on a mild and temperate climate, and on a fertile soil, might one day produce a society impatient of the shackles it might wish to impose upon it. A decree was therefore passed, that in the country districts the farm-houses should not be erected at a nearer distance from each other than three miles; with a view, probably, by preventing a ready intercourse, of counteracting more effectually any design they might be inclined to adopt for securing their independence.

A colony, in such a state, on the decline of their commercial establishments in the East, became a burden and an expence too heavy for them to bear; and little doubt was entertained of their willingness to dispose of it for a moderate sum of money, just before the French revolution and its destructive consequences unsettled the affairs of all Europe. As it never produced any surplus revenue, but, on the contrary, was attended with considerable expence; and, as they never applied it to any other use themselves, but that of refreshing their ships, which they could always do, in time of peace, just as well in the hands of any other power, it could not be supposed they would be averse to part with it; and, accordingly, overtures to this effect were intended to be made by England about the time when the above unfortunate event took place.

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Having shewn the necessity that the ships of most of the maritime powers of Europe are under of refreshing at the Cape, it is obviously the interest of all those powers that it should remain in the hands of that nation which would have the least motive for imposing restrictions on foreign visitors; and it is scarcely necessary to observe that, from the general policy of England, and the favourable circumstances in which her commerce and navigation are now placed, there would be a greater security of the Cape, when in her possession, being open to foreign shipping, and of refreshments being supplied to them on equal terms as to her own, than if left in the hands of any other power.

I have stated its vast importance to England in a military point of view: it now remains to consider it as a naval station. First, as a port for refreshing and refitting the ships of the East India Company: secondly, as a station for ships of war, commanding the entrance into the Indian seas; and, thirdly, as affording, by its geographical position, a ready communication with every part of the globe. After which, I shall endeavour to point out the disadvantages that may result to the East India Company, in the present war, if the French or Dutch are suffered to retain possession of the Cape.

If, in the first place, the advantages resulting from the possession of this settlement were confined to the furnishing of refreshments for the shipping of the East India Company, either on their outward or their homeward-bound voyage, I am will-

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ing to suppose the importance of them, however great even in this point of view, might be considered as inadequate to counterbalance the expence of keeping up the necessary establishment, although I have shewn that, under a prudent administration of the revenues, this expence would be reduced to a mere trifle. The Directors, indeed, thought they had sufficiently proved, by the measures they adopted with regard to the Cape, that it was by no means necessary for their trade as a place of refreshment. The Directors, however, were soon convinced of their mistake, having discovered that, although English seamen could bear the run between England and India, the native blacks, which they are under the necessity of employing in time of war, could not do it; and it is to be apprehended they either have or soon will discover, that unseasoned troops, sent directly from England, are no more able to bear an uninterrupted voyage, than the Lascars. It will remain, therefore, for the Directors to find out some other place, in lieu of the Cape, now that they are excluded from it, a circumstance which, indeed, their own conduct seemed to invite.

But, as I have already observed, all maritime affairs are peculiarly liable to casualties, and, on this consideration, one would be led to conclude that a friendly port must always be held as a valuable acquisition to all who are concerned in such affairs; and more especially to the East India Company, whose concerns are of such vast magnitude. The number of ships that meet with stress of weather, and suffer from the tremendous storms that are frequent in the winter

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season, on L'Aguillas Bank, must always stamp a value on the Cape, and make its ports and bays particularly desirable on the homeward-bound voyage.

That instances of distress do happen, and not unfrequently, in situations where the only hope of safety can be placed on the Cape, or in some of its bays, might be proved in a number of cases that happened while it remained in the hands of Great Britain; but I will content myself with mentioning one single instance. The Countess of Sutherland Indiaman experienced a most violent gale of wind between Madagascar and the coast of Africa, in which, after losing all her masts, she became a wreck at the mercy of the winds and waves for several days; and, at length, was momentarily expected to sink, when, on the weather clearing up, they descried the land of Africa to the southward of the spot where the Grosvenor was lost; and being now in the stream of the current, they contrived to fetch into Kromme River's Bay, a small Cove in Camtoos, or Saint Francis, or Content Bay, for it has a variety of names. Having here procured a supply of water and other refreshments, and rigged up a kind of jury masts, she endeavoured to proceed to Simon's Bay for the purpose of undergoing a thorough repair; but, unfortunately, she met with a second gale of wind, just as she was approaching the entrance of the bay; and in this gale she must inevitably have perished, had not Captain Hotham, with his Majesty's ship the Adamant, gone out to her immediate assistance, and succeeded in towing her off the rocky coast, towards which she was rapidly drifting. Now this single ship and her cargo were said to be estimated at the

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value of three hundred thousand pounds; a sum of money equal to the maintenance of the civil, military, and contingent expences of the Cape, for a whole year.

Had the Cape, at this time, been in the hands of the Dutch, the fate of the Countess of Sutherland must have been inevitable. In war she would have been taken; and in peace she would have been suffered to go on shore; for the Dutch possess neither the activity nor the willingness to give speedy assistance to ships in cases of distress. This unfortunate ship has since been captured and carried into the Isle of France; and the loss of the Prince of Wales, in attempting to beat round the Cape in the winter season, may wholly be attributed to the circumstance of this colony being in the possession of an enemy. The value of these two ships would have maintained the garrison for two years.

There is no place, in the homeward-bound voyage from India, so proper or so convenient for the valuable fleets of the East India Company to assemble at for convoy, in time of war, as the Cape of Good Hope. Here, at a very reasonable rate, their crews might be refreshed with fruits, vegetables, and fresh provisions. Salt beef, for the rest of the voyage, might here also be laid in, affording, thus, a considerable increase of tonnage in each ship for stowing goods, by her taking in only three instead of six months' provisions.

If, in the second place, we consider the Cape as a naval station, commanding the entrance into the Indian Seas, its importance, in this respect, will be no less obvious. A small

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squadron, during the last war, was found to be fully adequate to guard the passage round the Cape, and effectually to defeat any attempt of an enemy to disturb the peace of India, as well as to prevent them from giving the least annoyance to our trade in the Indian Seas. Not a single ship of the line of the enemy ventured to double the Cape in six years, much less did he venture to risk any attempt to throw troops into the colonies or the continent of India. If indeed foreign ships, in their voyage from Europe to India, find it necessary to refresh their crews at the Cape, how much more urgent would the necessity be when the same ships were crowded with troops. The French, in all their former wars, in the short voyage to the Isles of France and Bourbon, refreshed and refitted at the Cape. These islands, as I have already observed, instead of being able to victual a fleet, barely furnish provisions sufficient for the inhabitants and a small garrison. But by the supply of provisions and naval stores sent to them from the Cape, Suffrein was enabled to maintain his ground in the Indian Seas, without which he would very soon have been obliged to give up the contest. In the late war our cruizers from the Cape kept the Southern Ocean completely clear of the enemy's ships, and allowed the Indian squadron to make such choice of their cruizing ground, that between the two, not a French frigate escaped, nor scarcely a single privateer remained on the Mauritius station for some time before the close of the war. Our Indian squadron was reduced to a mere nothing, whereas it is now considered necessary to keep in those seas eight sail of the line and two Commanders in Chief, half of which force might be withdrawn and kept with greater advantage and much less expence at

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the Cape of Good Hope, ready on any emergency to act either to the eastward or the westward.

It is not probable that France will ever be able to make any impression on India but by the assistance of a fleet; and it must be our own fault if we allow them any such fleet in the Eastern Seas; as by our possessing the Cape, she must find it utterly impracticable to assemble, much more to victual and store, any such fleet. The want of a suitable place to refresh at must render every attempt to cope with us in those seas abortive. So well were they aware, in the late war, of the futility of any expedition from the Isles of France and Bourbon, without the assistance of the Cape of Good Hope, that they preferred the fatal experiment of colonizing Egypt, in the hope, perhaps, of proceeding at some future time by the Red Sea to India. They knew that, even if they had succeeded in getting out to these islands a sufficient number of ships and troops, yet without the supplies which they have usually on such occasions drawn from the Cape, any such expedition must necessarily here have ended.

While England held the Cape, the trade of every other nation to India and China might be considered as entirely at her mercy, though this is an advantage of which she is under no necessity of availing herself. During the northern confederacy, several Danes came in to refresh, although they knew they would be taken, or at least detained. With respect to the Americans, who, of late, by their carrying-trade alone, have worked themselves into the greatest portion, next to England, of the India and China trade, notwithstanding

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the favorable situation of their country to an extended commerce with India, they would find it extremely inconvenient to be obliged to relinquish the accommodation of refreshing their crews, and disposing of part of their cargoes, at the Cape of Good Hope; from whence, indeed, in case of any rupture, their trade might, at any time, be completely checked, a circumstance which would operate as a security for the preservation of amity and a good understanding with that commercial nation. Had we, indeed, been fortunate enough to have retained this settlement, there is every reason to believe the indulgencies granted to their trade here might have been an important consideration with them, in the renewal of a commercial treaty with England.

After what has been stated with regard to the healthiness of the climate, exemplified in the small degree of mortality among the troops, and in the vigor and stability that their constitutions acquired, it is scarcely necessary to add that the same salutary effects equally prevailed in the navy on this station. The mortality, indeed, among the seamen, was still less, probably on account of their being less exposed to the summer heats, and to their having fewer opportunities of committing irregularities. There was generally a difference of six or eight degrees in the temperature of the bay and the town. When the thermometer, for instance, in Cape Town was at 84°, it stood no higher than 76° on board the ships in Table Bay.

The moderate expence at which a fleet can here be maintained is, likewise, an advantage not to be overlooked. The

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sailor may be subsisted equally cheap with the soldier. It has been calculated, after making the usual allowances for waste, damage, and interest of money, on ships provisions sent out from England, to say nothing of the premium received on bills given in exchange for paper currency, that the sailor at the Cape can be furnished with his ration of fresh beef or mutton, biscuit, and wine, at one-fourth part of the rate which the same ration costs the government in salt provisions and biscuit sent out from England. A pint of wine, as I have already stated, costs no more than threepence, and might be reduced to half that price by abolishing the monopoly; and the Cape brandy, though at present bad, on account of the defective manner of distillation, and the improper ingredients employed, may be had at a much cheaper rate than West India rum, and would, in a little time, under the encouragement of the British Government, have been made in its quality equally good of its kind.

What the actual expence of the squadron, which might be considered to be stationed there for the defence of the settlement, amounted to, is not easily ascertained. Sometimes there were eighteen pendants, and sometimes not eight; and the ships were generally employed on various and active service. The following account, made up in conformity to a precept of the House of Commons on a motion of the late Sir William Pulteney, will shew at least the money expended there in seven years for naval services.

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"An account of the expences which have been incurred in maintaining the possession of the Cape of Good Hope, from the time it was surrendered to his Majesty's forces, to the time it was delivered up at the peace, so far as relates to payments made on account of the following Offices in the Naval Department."

	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
NAVY OFFICE.									
Stores purchased, payment to artificers, salaries and other charges on account of the naval establishment on shore	—	—	—	365,848	1	11			
Pay to Admirals or Commanding Officers on the station, their Secretaries	—	—	—	14,680	12	4			
Wages to the Companies of his Majesty's ships employed there	—	—	—	192,510	0	0			
							573,038	14	3
VICTUALLING OFFICE.									
Expences incurred for the sea service	—	—	—	632,635	18	3			
Ditto for the land service	—	—	—	35,639	16	8¾			
							668,275	14	11¾
SICK AND WOUNDED OFFICE.									
Sick and wounded Seamen.									
Victualling, &c. of patients	87,228	13	1½						
Salaries, &c. to officers	10,652	15	9						
Vegetables, lime juice, &c. to his Majesty's ships and vessels	8,791	16	3						
				106,673	5	1½			
Sick Prisoners of War.									
Victualling, &c. of patients	5,457	11	5						
Salaries, wages, &c. to officers	2,575	19	6						
				8,033	10	11			
							114,706	16	0½
						Total £.	1,356,021	5	3¼
						Or a yearly expence of	193,717	6	5

To this account the Commissioners of the Navy have very properly subjoined the following observation: "The above "accounts include all the expences incurred at the Cape "while it was in our possession, not only on account of the "squadron which may be considered as more immediately "stationed for the protection of the settlement and of the

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" establishment of the naval yard, but for a great number of " ships of war which touched at the Cape on their passage " to and from India, as well as for a considerable body of " troops which were sent to that settlement and afterwards " transported to India. The abatement of the expences of " victualling these ships and troops, and of the prisoners " taken from the enemy, would very much reduce the ex- " pence relating to the victualling department; and the same " observation will apply to a considerable extent in respect " of the expences for the sick and wounded seamen, and also " of the expences for refitment of ships not belonging to the " Cape squadron, and for stores supplied to them: but find- " ing it impracticable to separate the expences, so as to " ascertain with correctness what part was incurred for such " a number of ships and for such a naval establishment as " might be considered to have been maintained solely for " the protection of the settlement, which expences only " would come within the meaning of the precept, it has been " judged better to send the accounts in their present form, " with the above explanations, than to attempt to form an " estimate thereof, the accuracy of which could not be " relied on."

It would indeed be just as correct to charge the victualling and other expences of the fleet under Lord Nelson blockading Cadiz to the account of Gibraltar, as the whole money expended on naval services at the Cape of Good Hope to the account of maintaining that settlement. As a great proportion of the provisions were the produce of the colony, I have little hesitation in saying that if the same number of

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ships had been attached to the Indian station, the victualling account would at the very least have been equal to twice the sum contained therein.

With respect to the wear and tear of the tackle and furniture, I have understood it to be very considerable on this station, owing to the frequent gales of wind, and the exposed situation of the ships. Admiral Pringle used to say, that every south-easterly gale, of a week's duration, cost his Majesty some thousand pounds. But this expence might, probably, be obviated by forming an establishment at Saldanha Bay.

The geographical position of the Cape of Good Hope throws a vast weight into the scale of its importance to England. Its happy situation, with regard to climate and the productions of the soil, stamps its value as a depository of troops and seamen; and its relative position on the globe enhances that value by the ready communication it commands with almost every part of the world. We have seen with what expedition more than two thousand troops were thrown from hence into India, to the very walls of Seringapatam; and, on another occasion, twelve hundred effective men into Egypt. With equal facility and dispatch could the same, or a greater, number have been conveyed to the east coast of North America, the West India islands, and the east and west coasts of South America. At a month's notice, the whole coast of Brazil could be lined with cruizers from the Cape. The whole eastern coast of Africa, and the various islands contiguous to it, are at the mercy of the power who

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holds the Cape; and the large island of Madagascar may be approached in ten or twelve days, those of France and Bourbon in much less than a month, the Red Sea in five or six weeks, and the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel in seven or eight weeks. These passages will certainly depend much on the season of the year in which they are made; but when this is properly chosen, the different places may be arrived at within the periods here mentioned. The only effectual blockade of the Isles of France and Bourbon can be kept up from the Cape; it is in vain to attempt it from India without a much greater force than it would be prudent to keep there for that purpose. In fact, this advance post, in its relation to our Eastern dominions, may be considered in the same light as Barbadoes is to Jamaica and the rest of the West India islands —a point from whence they can at all times receive a speedy reinforcement; and with this additional advantage, that it excludes the enemy from entering the Eastern Seas with any considerable force.

If, at any time, troops should be wanted in the West Indies, the homeward-bound East Indiamen might be employed to transport them thither from the Cape without retarding their passage more than sixteen or eighteen days, as the common practice of crossing the line is now as far to the westward as 26° west longitude. Detachments of the Hottentot corps would be well calculated for service in the West India islands. Should, at any future period, the French resume their projects on India by the Red Sea (which they will certainly not fail to do whenever an opportunity presents itself), in three months from the time it was first known in England,

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a force from the Cape might be in possession of the straits of Babelmandel, and, by thus anticipating, completely frustrate their designs, which, with the Cape in their possession, or in that of the Dutch, they would with great facility accomplish.

But if the geographical position of the Cape gives it the pre-eminence, as a great naval and military station, as the barrier and master-key of our Indian possessions, it still derives other advantages from this very circumstance, which, though of a subordinate nature, are highly deserving of notice; these are the turn it is capable of giving to the commerce of India and China; and the encouragement and protection it affords to the Southern Whale Fishery; but as these considerations are too important to be slightly passed over, it may be proper to reserve the observations that occur on them for a subsequent chapter; and, in the mean time, proceed to point out the disadvantages that may result to Britain, and particularly to the East India Company, from the Cape being placed in the possession of the Dutch, or, which must be considered as the same thing, in that of the French, the former being so much reduced and degraded by the latter, that they no longer are, and in all probability never can revive as, a separate and an independent nation.

We have already seen the vast advantages that Great Britain derived to her trade and possessions in India, during the late war, by holding this barrier in her own hands; let us now consider what our situation is, in these respects, in the present state of things. The Cape of Good Hope is in the possession of an enemy; Rio de la Plata belongs to Spain, who has

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been forced into hostility against us; and the Isles of France and Bourbon, deriving their usual supplies from the Cape, are enabled to send out their cruizing squadrons against our trade. These three important stations, all hostile to us, form a triangle, within the boundary lines of which every ship, bound to or from the Indies, must necessarily pass; and the respective positions of these three points are so favorable for annoying our trade, that, were the skill and activity of the enemies who hold them commensurate with our own, which, fortunately for us, they certainly are not, it would be almost an hopeless attempt for a ship to escape.

It will be urged, perhaps, that the great extent which may be taken in crossing the equator from eighteen to twenty-six degrees of longitude, leaving it to the discretion of the commanders of our East India Company's ships to keep the American shore close on board, or to pass it at a distance; and the equally great extent that may be chosen in doubling the Cape, from the thirty-fourth to the forty-second degree of latitude, would render the cruizing of the enemy so precarious, that the odds of escaping them are greatly in our favor. It is granted that it may be so; and I am, moreover, persuaded that neither the French nor the Dutch would attempt to intercept our outward-bound ships, for these two reasons; first, because their value is so much less on the outward than on the homeward-bound passage; and secondly, on account of the uncertainty of falling in with them, as well as in consideration of the violent storms their cruizers would be almost sure to encounter off the Cape of Good Hope.

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But these circumstances take a very different turn on the homeward-bound voyage. The danger is then increased in a much greater proportion than the value of the ships is augmented. If, indeed, we are willing to allow the enemy to employ the same means that we should ourselves do, in a like situation, the capture of many of our ships may be considered as inevitable. Since this was written the observation has been but too fully justified.

In the first place, the danger of the straits of Sunda presents itself to our homeward-bound China ships. A small squadron from Batavia, stationed at Nicholas Point on the north of Java, where there is good anchorage, or at Anjerie Point in the middle of the Strait, at both of which places it may receive a constant supply of refreshments, would be able to intercept every ship that attempted to pass the Strait. To avoid these the Strait of Malacca has been chosen, but in either case the ships from China pass a fixed point. When Linois waited the approach of the Canton fleet near Pulo Aura, he knew to a certainty that he could not miss them; and had he possessed the courage and the skill of a British officer, the greater part, if not the whole, of this valuable fleet must have fallen into his hands or have been destroyed.

Both these straits, it is true, may be avoided by taking the eastern passage; but here a new and no less danger presents itself from the port of Manilla. As all ships, making this passage, must go within sight of Luconia, it would

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be difficult for them to avoid an active squadron cruizing off this island. Thus,

" Incidit in Scyllam cupiens vitare Charybdim ;"

by avoiding one danger they fall into a greater.

Admitting, however, that either through the exertions of our cruizers, or the inactivity of the enemy, the China fleet should escape both Scylla aud Charibdis ; the next dangerous point that occurs, not only to them but to the whole trading concern of the East India Company, is the L'Aguilla's Bank, where we can have no cruizers to protect our trade, on account of the heavy storms that prevail there, and the want of a friendly port to refit and refresh our ships. The current, that sets along the outer margin of this bank, moves at the rate of forty or fifty miles a day, in the winter months, in direct opposition to the north-westerly winds ; a circumstance so well known, that all our ships strive to keep in the stream of the current, which sweeps them round the Cape against the wind. The enemy's cruizers would find no difficulty in running from False Bay, in the winter months, close along shore as far as Algoa Bay, which our ships have frequently done in three or four days ; and, by skirting the outer margin of L'Aguilla's Bank, they can, at any time, return by the stream of the current, even against a gale of wind. Thus might their ships of war from the Cape track our homeward-bound India-men, and greatly annoy our trade ; for, on the return-voyage, they have much less scope in doubling the Cape than when outward-bound. Indeed, in the winter season, it is almost

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impracticable to double the Cape at any great distance from it. The attempt to do it has generally failed, and always been attended with the greatest danger of losing the ships, as in the instance of the Prince of Wales. The Experiment from China, venturing on the usual track, was captured on the edge of the L'Aguilla's Bank.

Supposing them, however, to have escaped all these dangers; admitting them to have passed the island of Manilla, the Straits of Malacca and of Sunda, and the Cape of Good Hope; there still remains one point against which nothing can protect them but a superior fleet. In whatever degree of latitude the Cape of Good Hope may be doubled, in the homeward-bound passage, all our ships run nearly upon the same line to Saint Helena, so nearly, indeed, that I suppose they scarcely deviate twenty leagues from the same track. If then a squadron of the enemy's ships from the Cape should cruize to windward of this island, and within sight of it, our India fleet must necessarily fall into their hands. And on this cruizing ground, where the wind is fixed and steady, the water smooth, and the weather always fine, the enemy's vessels may remain for any length of time.

The enormous expence, and, indeed, the impracticability of affording effective convoys to our Indian trade, under such unfavorable circumstances, must be obvious to every one. The expence of one effective convoy to be stationed off Saint Helena, as long as the Cape remains in the possession of the French, to say nothing of the serious inconvenience of detaching ships of war from more important stations, would be

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much more than sufficient to maintain the whole establishment of the Cape for a twelvemonth; and, in all probability, more than the profits might amount to of the cargoes so convoyed. Saint Helena, besides, is not adequate to furnish any supplies for such a convoy. With the greatest exertions a few refreshments are raised for the use of the island, and the surplus is disposed of at a most extravagant rate to the shipping of the East India Company. They have few horned cattle, and not one of these can there be killed without the consent of the Governor. Yet this is the only place we now have left where a convoy can be assembled; a fixed point, where it is exactly known to all the world at what periods, within a month, the several convoys will be collected. How incalculable then were the advantages of possessing a middle point between India and Europe, where every necessary refreshment might be had in the greatest abundance; and which, instead of being a point of danger and annoyance as it now is, was the bulwark of security to our Indian trade and possessions.

Those who may feel inclined to console themselves for the loss of the Cape, by reflecting that nothing of serious moment happened to our Indian fleets and possessions during the American war, should recollect the great change of circumstances that has taken place since that event. Holland, at that time, though an impoverished and declining nation, was independent on France, and had her own possessions in India to protect; and France, though equally then, as now, zealous to accomplish the ruin of our wealth and power in India, which she had long in vain endeavoured to emulate, had but

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just the means of giving a feeble protection to her territorial possessions in that quarter of the globe. Armies were not raised, nor fleets equipped, with that facility under the monarchy, as under republican tyranny, or consular despotism. Mr. Delacroix took great pains to impress on the mind of Lord Malmesbury the accession of strength that France had acquired by her republican form of government. " Nous ne " sommes plus dans la décrépitude de la France mo- " narchique, mais dans toute la force d'une republique ado- " lescente."

What imperial France may be able to atchieve, a little time will probably determine. Not having, however, at present any possessions in India to protect, her grand object will probably be, in co-operation with the Dutch, to endeavour to hold in their hands, by rendering it impregnable, this outwork and barrier of all India; and having once effected this, she will find little difficulty in assembling, at her own islands of France and Bourbon, a sufficient number of troops and transports to disturb the peace of our Indian settlements. Her aim will not be that of fighting our fleets of war, nor of making a direct attack on our Eastern possessions, but to abet and assist the native powers against us, with a view rather of destroying our empire in India, than any hope she can possibly form of establishing one of her own. Without funds and without credit she can have little prospect of amassing wealth by fair trade and honest industry; and will therefore attempt, by every means she can think of employing, to effect the ruin of ours; by disturbing the peace of our settlements through her intriguing agents; by forming al-

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liances with those who are dsiposed to be hostile towards us; and by assisting them with her troops.

It was in this point of view that the French considered the Cape of Good Hope to be more important than the Island of Ceylon, the cession of which, I have reason to believe, they never meant to dispute vigorously in negociation, being rather determined to stand a contest for the restoration of the Cape *nominally* to its ancient possessors. If, however, in order to obtain a peace, we were actually reduced to the necessity of accepting the alternative of retaining one and giving up the other, as may have been the case, it became, no doubt, a very serious and interesting consideration, justly to appreciate their comparative value and importance. The one rated as yielding a revenue of nearly a million a year, with a harbour not surpassed in the whole world; the key of all India; and a place, in the hands of a powerful enemy, from whence all India might be assaulted—the other, a barren promontory (for such it was generally esteemed) at a great distance from our Indian territories, affording little or no revenue, and maintained at a considerable expence.

"If we give up Ceylon," has observed Lord Macartney, "being situated at the extremity of the peninsula of India, it "would become an immediate and terrific enemy to us in that "quarter, as commanding the power of invading from thence "both the coast of Malabar and Coromandel. To a maritime "power the excellent harbour of Trincomalée is a jewel of in-"estimable value; it holds the Bay of Bengal at its mercy, and "affords every facility of overawing and controuling the na-

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" vigation of the Straits of Sunda and Malacca. Our Asiatic
" possessions, commerce, and marine, would consequently lie
" open to the depredations of the masters of Ceylon .... Ad-
" mitting then that Ceylon should preponderate, if put into
" the scale against the Cape, let it not be forgotten, however,
" that *the Cape in an enemy's hands may become a powerful in-*
" *strument for their recovering Ceylon.*"

There can be no question that the French had previously decided on the relative importance of these two settlements which had been taken from their ally; and that they were extremely glad we gave up that which was considered as the worse, under the idea of its being an instrument in their hands which might enable them to take from us the better. Ceylon to them was of no great value. It furnishes no supplies for an army or a navy, and would always be at the mercy of that power which could bring a superior fleet into the Indian Seas; and we have shewn that no such fleet of an enemy could be assembled there, nor victualled, nor provisioned, whilst the Cape of Good Hope remained a British colony. It would seem then to have been a more desirable object to retain possession of that station which would effectually have excluded them from the Indian Seas; and which would have enabled us to confine them to their useless islands of France and Bourbon.

Of one thing England may be well assured, that the destruction of its commerce, as the source from whence its power and affluence are derived, is a sentiment so deeply rooted in the mind of the Corsican that, so long as it continues to flourish,

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his irascible and vindictive temper will not allow him to keep on any terms of friendship with us. He is well aware that our commerce is our great support, that, as Mr. Delacroix observed, it enabled us to subsidize all Europe against them; and that if he could once break up our commerce to India and China, and shut us out from the Mediterranean, the grand bulwark that stands between him and universal sovereignty would, in a great degree, be removed.

Should his views, unhappily for the world, ever be accomplished, an age of barbarism would return, ten times darker than that which followed the irruption of the northern hordes. A deadly blow would be struck at once to the liberty of the press; nothing would be written, nor printed, nor tolerated, but what the sovereign despot should find conducive to his universal sway. The time would then come when *legit ut clericus*, instead of saving a man from death, would be the sure means of bringing him to his end.

It behoves his Majesty's Government then to be upon its guard, and to watch the points where we are most vulnerable, in our commercial concerns, with unremitting attention; but above all, to secure the possession of every post that might favour the designs of the French upon India. The first step towards the accomplishment of this desirable object is the recovery of the Cape of Good Hope; for, without the possession of this out-work, our Indian Empire can never be considered as secure. While the enemy is allowed to keep the key, the house is all at times liable to be plundered.

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Having now pointed out some of the principal advantages which the Cape possesses as a naval station, it is right to mention the inconveniencies under which it labours in this respect. The most serious of these, which, indeed, is the only material one that I am acquainted with, is the want of a secure and convenient harbour for refitting, repairing, or building ships. The two principal bays that are resorted to by shipping, one in the summer, the other in the winter months, are entirely open, and exposed to the two prevailing winds, the north-west and the south-east; nor does it appear to be practicable, by any expence, to render them secure and sheltered, nor to construct any kind of dock or harbour for the reception of large ships, and scarcely even of small coasting vessels.

If any thing of this kind were to be attempted in Table Bay, it could only extend to the accommodation of small craft; and the only place for this purpose would be at Rogge Bay, where nature has laid a solid foundation of rock, close to which there is a considerable depth of water, where the swell of the sea is broken by the jutting points on which are erected the Amsterdam and the Chavonne batteries. At all events, this would be a much better and more convenient landing place than at the present wooden wharf, which is barely kept from falling into ruins at an enormous annual expence.

In all other parts of the bay an attempt to make any kind of harbour would be fruitless. The tide barely rises five feet, and the constant rolling swell in the winter season would always choak the entrance of any dock with sand. Thus the mouth of the Salt River is alternately open and blocked up with sand.

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The annexed chart of Table Bay was constructed by order of Governor Van de Graaff in the year 1786, and has been found, by a diligent examination, to be extremely accurate. The anchoring-ground in general is tolerably good, but the shifting of the sand leaves bare sometimes whole ridges of the same kind of hard blue schistus that appears every where on the west shore of the bay. These ridges are so sharp, that a cable coming across them is sure to be cut in pieces. This has happened so frequently, that the bay is full of anchors, which have never been fished up; and these contribute equally with the rocks, to cut and chafe the cables of other ships. If some pains be not taken to remove the anchors, the number of which increase every year, there will not, in time, be a clear anchorage for a single large ship. When the Dutch Admiral Dekker's squadron was blown out of Table Bay in February 1803, they left six or eight anchors behind.

Admiral Pringle, I understand, was of opinion that the inconvenience arising from the rocks and the lost anchors was in some degree remediable, by sinking mooring-chains for the large ships, instead of their lying at anchor. In the south-east winds, which blow from September to the end of April, and which is the season when all ships bound for the Cape resort to Table Bay, there is no other danger than that of being driven out to sea from the wear and tear of the cables; though the water is not smooth, yet the sea is not high, and it is next to impossible for a ship to go on shore, unless on the south point of Robben Island, which they have always time enough to avoid, the distance being seven or eight miles. Within this island and the continent there is excellent anchorage,

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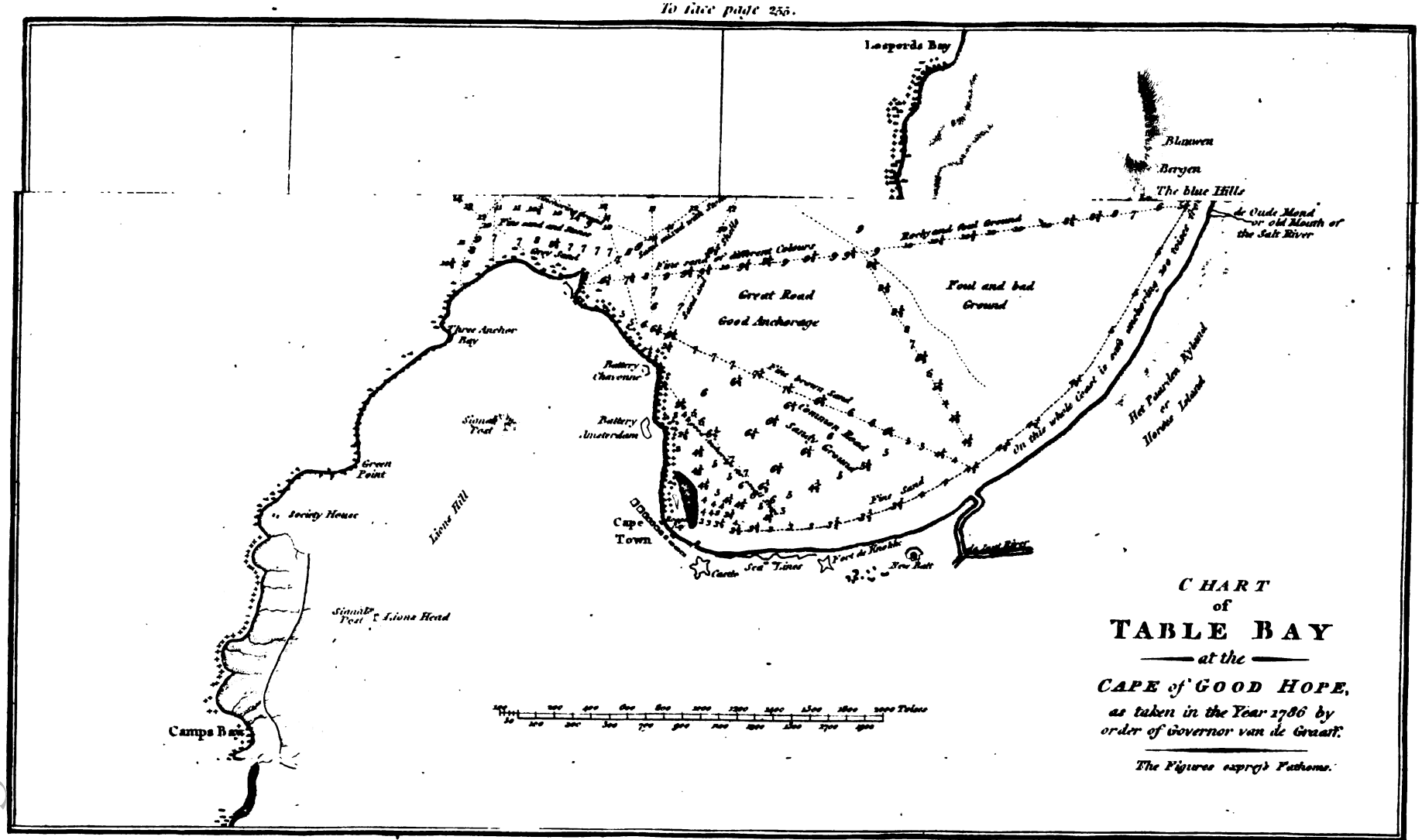

Published Dec.r 1.st 1795. by Cadell & Davies, Strand.

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where ships so driven out usually bring up. Here, too, ships intending to come into Table Bay generally wait the abatement of a south-east wind, if it should happen to blow too strong for their working up against it. This island is too small, and at too great a distance, to afford the least shelter to Table Bay in the north-west winds that blow in the winter months.

The frequency, the strength, and the long duration of the south-east winds are attended with considerable disadvantage to commerce, it being sometimes impracticable to ship or to land goods for many successive days.

These winds are very uncertain in their duration, there being scarcely two years in which their periods do not vary. The Dutch used to bring their ships round about the beginning of September; but as Simon's Bay is safe, at all times of the year, for a few ships, the English protracted the time of entering Table Bay to the beginning of October, yet in the year 1799, his Majesty's ship the Seeptre, with seven others, were driven on shore on the fifth of November.

The loss of this ship was attended with many distressful circumstances. At one o'clock she fired a *feu-de-joie*, in commemoration of the anniversary of the Popish plot; at ten the same evening scarcely a vestige was to be seen, but the fragments of the wreck scattered on the strand, in myriads of pieces, not a single plank remaining whole, nor two attached together. Captain Edwards, his son, with ten other officers, and near three hundred seamen and marines perished on this

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melancholy occasion. The body of young Edwards, a fine boy of about fourteen years, was found the next day with a bible in his bosom; that of the father not till several days after. The morning after this melancholy accident happened, exhibited a dismal scene of distress. The strand was strewed with dead carcases, most of them mangled in so shocking a manner by the shattered fragments of the ship, that they were obliged to bury them in holes upon the beach; the bodies that could be taken up whole were placed in waggons and carried to the usual burying-ground.

The Oldenburg, a Danish man of war of 64 guns, went on shore the same day, but, from her having drifted upon a smooth sandy beach, the crew were saved, as were those of all the other ships. The Sceptre was unfortunately thrown upon a ledge of rocks near the mouth of the Salt River. Captain Edwards, it seems, conformably to the custom of the navy, employed every means to bring her up while drifting, and, having lost their last anchor, bent even the forecastle guns to the cable. The Dutch, knowing from experience how ineffectual is every attempt when once a ship has parted her cables, pay no further attention to her safety but, setting some of the head sails, run her ashore between the wharf and the centre of the sea-lines, upon a smooth sandy beach, by which means, though the ship be lost, the crew are generally saved.

Our officers seem to be divided in opinion as to the preference to be given to Table Bay or Simon's Bay. They are certainly both defective, but the latter would appear to be the

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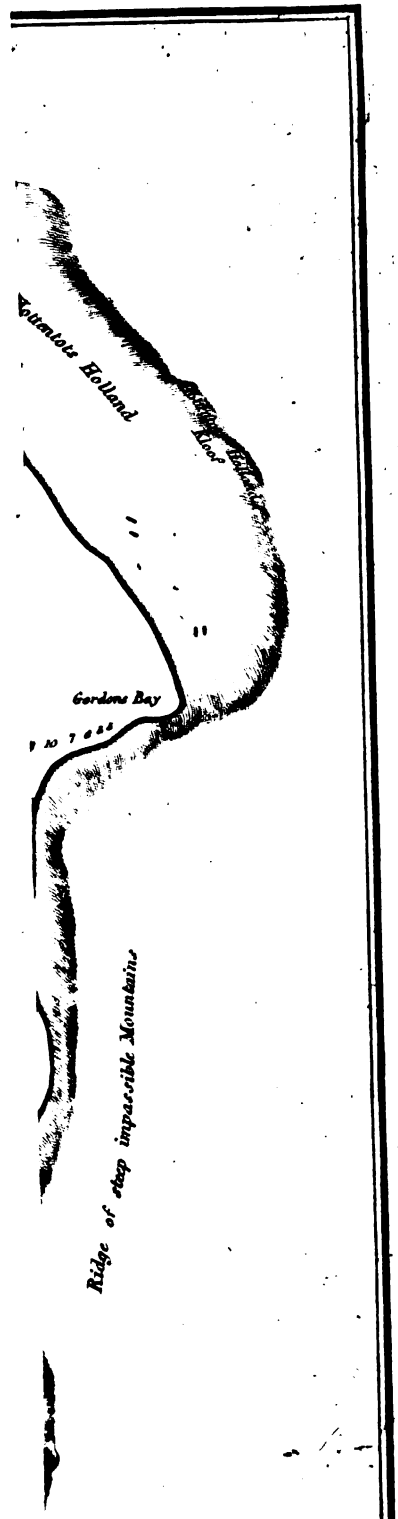

NOTE

The Buoy on Whittles Rock lies in 9 Fathoms at low Water, and bears from the Rock by Compass N.W. by N. about 35 Fathoms distant at 2 P.M. On Monday the 19th Decr. 1796. the least water on the Rock was 12 Feet. it appears about 30 Feet long and 10 broad has irregular Soundings all round about 2 Cables from it.

The Variation in False Bay. 23 West Lat. Cape Good Hope Ps. 34°. 22'. 30".

Neele sc. 352 Strand.

more secure, from the circumstance of few, if any, ships having ever been known to drive on shore from their anchors, whilst scarcely a season passes without some being lost in Table Bay. In the winter months, when the wind blows from north to north-west, forty or fifty ships may lie at anchor perfectly secure in Simon's Bay; and eight or ten may be sufficiently sheltered in the strongest south-easters. The Great Bay False, of which this is an identation or cove, was so little known at the time of the capture by the British forces, that Rear-Admiral Pringle, in the year 1797, directed it to be surveyed and sounded, in consequence of which the exact situation was ascertained of a very dangerous rock, placed directly in the passage of ships into Simon's Bay; a rock, of the existence of which the Dutch were entirely ignorant. The annexed chart, with the soundings, is a copy of the said survey.

The usual months in which ships resort to Simon's Bay are from May to September inclusive. The distance from Cape Town, being twenty-four miles, and the badness of the road, mostly deep sand and splashes of water, render the communication at all times difficult; but more especially so in the winter; and few supplies are to be had at Simon's Town; a name with which a collection of about a dozen houses has most unworthily been dignified.

The necessity of ships of war being sent round into Simon's Bay for five months in the year, might be attended with very serious consequences to the safety of the colony, as far, at least, as depended on the exertions of the navy belonging to

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the station. Being a lee port, the chances are greatly against their being able to work up to Table Bay, and still less to Saldanha Bay, to afford any assistance in the event of an attack by an enemy's fleet; which, without any interruption or molestation, might disembark troops, and land artillery, stores, and ammunition at Robben Island, or any of the windward bays.

This being the case, it would seem more desirable that the ships of war upon the station should winter in Saldanha Bay, being not only a windward port with respect to Cape Town, but one of the best harbours, perhaps, in the whole world. It extends in length near fifteen miles, in the direction of the coast, which is about north by east, and south by west; and the entrance into it is near the northern end, through a ridge of granite hills, moderately high. In this entrance are three rocky islands, two of which, named Jutten and Malagas, are partly without; and the third of flat naked rock, called Marcus, is directly in the mouth of the passage, about three quarters of a mile from the northern, and a little more than a mile from the southern points of land, forming the entrance. These two points and the island being once fortified, would render the bay inaccessible to an enemy's fleet. To the southward of the entrance, and within the bay, are two other islands, called the Schaapen and the Mewen. Between these is a narrow passage into the south angle of the bay, which is called the Laguna, or lake, where cutters, schooners, fishing ships, and all kinds of small craft, to almost any amount, might lie as securely as in a dock. On the north side of these two islands is also good and safe anchorage for

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large ships; and it was here that the squadron of Admiral Lucas was lying, when captured by that of Sir George Elphinstone.

But the northern part of Saldanha Bay, distinguished by the name of Hootjes Bay, affords the most eligible, convenient, and secure anchorage for large shipping, being land-locked and sheltered from all winds. There is also a very excellent landing-place near a mass of granite rock, which is convertible into a commodious pier. The western shore of Hootjes Bay is skirted by a range of granite rocks, along the sides of which shipping might be hove down to repair, the water being four fathoms deep, close in with the rocks. The Dutch ship Middleburg, that was set on fire when Commodore Johnstone appeared off the bay, went down with her sides just touching these rocks, where she now lies under water as if alongside a quay.

The entrance of Saldanha Bay lies in latitude 33° 10′ south, longitude 18° east, and the distance from Table Bay is eighteen leagues north by west. About nine leagues to the southward of the entrance is a low flat island, not many miles from the main land, called Dassen Island, which is said to be constantly covered with rabbits and penguins. The former may generally be taken with great ease; for on the appearance of people on the island, the penguins take possession of the rabbit holes, to the exclusion of the rightful owners. Saldanha Bay, the shores of Dassen Island, and Robben Island, in the mouth of Table Bay, abound with the different kinds of fish peculiar to this part of the world. Saldanha Bay,

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in the winter season, is frequented by vast numbers of the black whale, where the Southern fishers very frequently resort in order to complete their cargoes.

The situation of Saldanha Bay is much more convenient than that of the peninsula for receiving the supplies afforded by the country. The deep sandy isthmus, whose heavy roads have been the destruction of multitudes of cattle, would be entirely avoided; and its distance from the corn districts, which is the most material article of consumption, is much less than that of the Cape. Its situation, with regard to all the northern parts of the colony, is much more convenient than Cape Town; and equally so for those who inhabit the distant district of Graaf Reynet, and who usually pass over the Roode Sand Kloof.

From the many conveniencies that Saldanha Bay possesses, as a secure harbour for shipping, at all seasons of the year, where they may be repaired, and even built, must, on the other hand, be deducted two very serious disadvantages, without the removal of which it must ever present insuperable obstacles against its becoming a great naval station; these are the want of wood and of fresh water.

The first might indeed be supplied, to a certain degree, from the adjacent country. In the sand hills, that surround a part of the bay, grow several kinds of shrubby plants, whose long and thick roots are easily drawn out of the loose sand, and in such abundance as scarcely to be credited. They form a kind of subterranean forest. The sides of the hills

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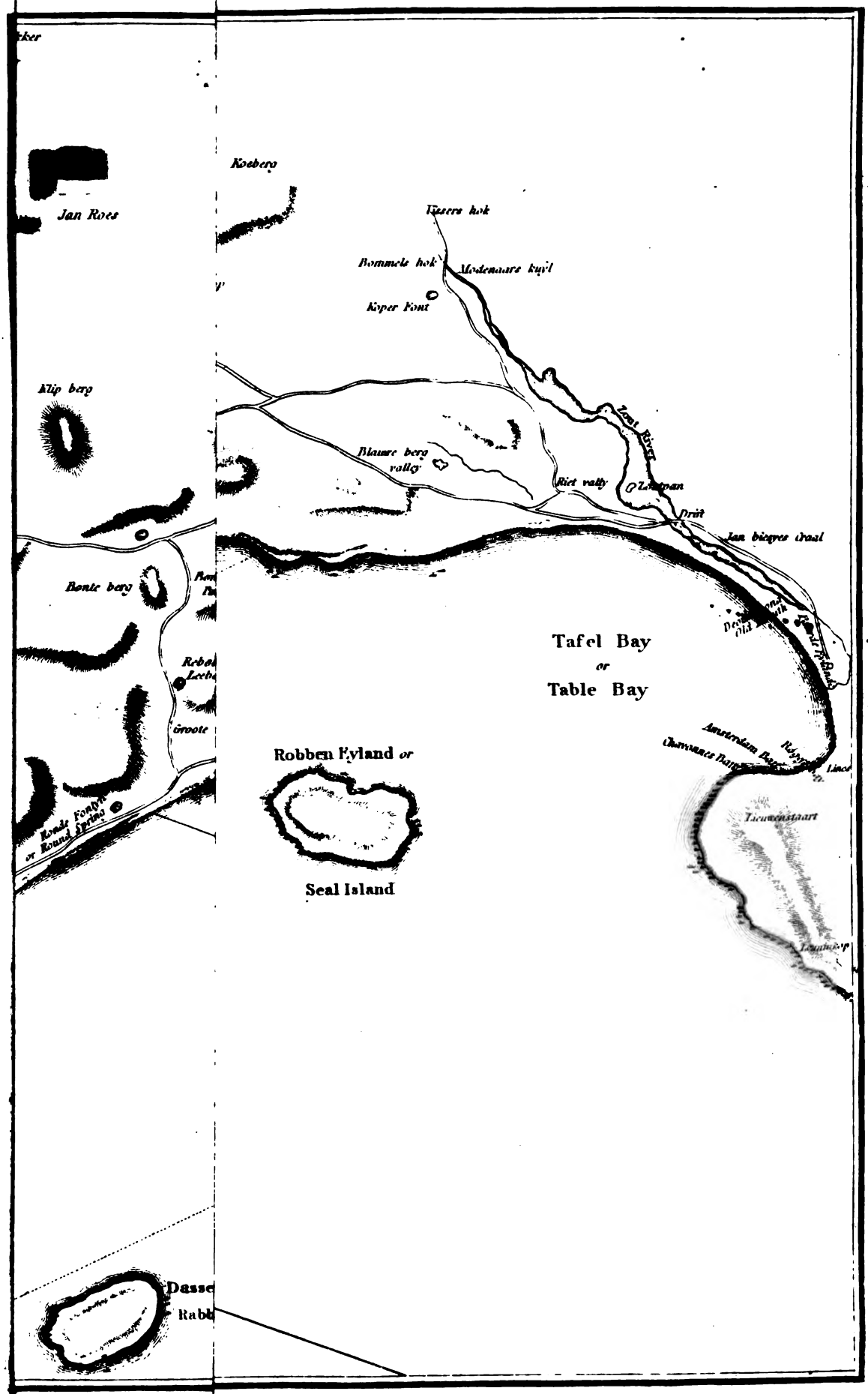

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also, and the extensive plains, are covered with frutescent plants. If the country, indeed, was planted with the oak, poplar, silver tree, and others that grow near the Cape, plenty of firewood might, in a very few years, be furnished for any number of shipping that would ever frequent the bay.

The scarcity of water is a much more serious evil than that of wood, and perhaps more difficult to obviate. There are two small springs towards the south end of the bay, but the water of both is slightly impregnated with salt. The farmers, however, seem to have no idea of digging wells, or of opening a spring to let it run; on the contrary, the usual practice is that of making a large dam close to the spring: by so doing, they expose a greater surface to the action of the sun, which is certainly an unwise measure, on a soil so strongly impregnated with saline substances, and in a climate where evaporation is so powerfully carried on. On a trial being made, by order of the late Admiral Sir Hugh Christian, to obtain water by digging near the landing-place of Hootjes Bay, a mass of granite rock, of a steel blue color, was entered to the depth of thirty or forty feet, and the small quantity of water that oozed through the seams was found to be impregnated with salt.

It may be observed, in the annexed chart of the coasts from Table Bay to Saldanha Bay, that in every part there are abundance of springs spontaneously bursting out of the ground, for not one of these have ever been dug for, nor a spade put into the ground in order to open the conduits and

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suffer them to run more freely. If, indeed, we consider for a moment the situation of this low sandy belt of land, stretching along the northern coast, common sense must convince us that there is plenty of water at no great distance below the surface. It is bounded on the east, at the distance only of seventy miles, by a chain of mountains, whose summits are from two to nearly five thousand feet high; and all the waters, from both sides of these mountains, fall upon this narrow plain. A great part of them, it is true, sink into the Berg River, but the Berg River itself is on a level with Saldanha Bay, into which, indeed, the whole body of it might, with great ease, be carried.

This was, in fact, a favorite subject of conversation with the late Colonel Gordon, and some other Dutch gentlemen, by which would not only be furnished a plentiful supply of water for a town, garrison, and shipping but, at the same time, a navigation would be opened into the interior of the country, particularly into Zwartland, the granary of the colony. Such a scheme would, no doubt, be practicable, though that part of it which regards the supply of a fleet and town with fresh water would perhaps fail to answer the purpose, for the following reasons: That part of the Berg River, where it would be the most practicable to turn its course, is within a mile or two of the place to which the high spring tides flow, and about twenty miles from the present mouth of the river in St. Helena Bay. The distance from the same place, along the line in which the new channel would be carried to Saldanha Bay, is about five and twenty or perhaps thirty miles. Allowing for the circuitous course of the river in its present

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channel, and considering the bays of Saldanha and St. Helena to have the same difference of level with the place at which the river is proposed to be turned, the general current in the new would be the same as that in the present channel, and this is so very trifling, that let there be given in the new one a fall as little as possible at the first, and as great as possible near the bay, the tide must nevertheless set up it for many miles, and render the water completely salt; and if it were an open canal terminating in a bason, there is reason to suppose it would soon be choaked up with the sand which the wind shifts and rolls about. There is a spring at Witte Klip, the White Rock, which is situated on an elevated point about six miles to the northward of Hootjes Bay, which appears to be amply sufficient for the supply of a considerable fleet of ships, if collected and brought to the bay in pipes, the expence of which could not exceed a few thousand pounds.

Even should this not be found sufficient for the purposes of the fleet and the necessary establishment consequential to its becoming the naval station, a measure might be adopted which could not fail of securing a constant supply of fresh water to any amount. This would be effected by bringing it in pipes from the Berg River, which never fails in the dryest weather, and the surface of which, contrary to almost all the other rivers of the colony, is very little sunk below the general surface of the country. I should think that ten thousand pounds would go a great way towards accomplishing this object, so important to every nation whose shipping trade to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope. Were this once

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effected, the interest of the capital expended in the undertaking would be more than defrayed by an additional port duty of ten dollars or two pounds sterling for each ship; a mere trifle, when compared to the ease and security in which ships would here ride at anchor, and thus avoid the wear and tear of Table Bay, besides the conveniency of careening and repairing; and, above all, the perfect safety in which they would remain in all winds and at all seasons of the year.

There can be little doubt, if a naval establishment was once formed at Saldanha Bay, that many coasting vessels and fishing ships would be constructed here, as it affords every convenience that could be required for building ships, which would be the means of increasing the coasting trade, and especially in the article of timber, the produce of the colony. Whether any of the forest trees of South Africa are suitable for building ships seems, as yet, a doubtful matter. Hitherto they have not had any trial. With respect to size and form they are liable to no objections, and there can be little doubt that, by felling them at a proper time, and seasoning them in such a manner as the climate may require, they would be found to answer all the purposes that might be wanted, not only for the hull of a ship but also for masts and yards. So little did they know, in the Cape, of the resources of the colony, with respect to the timber, that of the forty-four distinct species of forest trees, of the wood of which I procured specimens, that were delivered to Government by Lord Macartney, not more than six or eight were in partial use; of the rest the names even were unknown.

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The only bay within the limits of the colony, to the northward of Saldanha Bay, is that of Saint Helena, which, by land from Hootjes Bay is little more than fifteen miles. In shape and situation it resembles Table Bay, but wants the attractions of the latter both in respect of the quality of the contiguous land and the quantity of water. Whalers sometimes anchor in this bay, where, from the remote and undisturbed situation, so many whales constantly resort in the winter months, that they seldom find any difficulty of making up the deficiency of their cargo.

But on the south coast of the colony there are several bays into which ships may occasionally run for shelter in the north-west monsoon, but they are all open to the south-east quarter. Of these the principal are Mossel Bay, the Knysna, Plettenberg's Bay, and Algoa or Zwart Kop's Bay. The charts of this coast and the bays that were in the possession of the Dutch were found to be so incorrect, that Admiral Pringle sent Lieutenant Rice, in the Hope brig, for the purpose of making a survey, of which the following charts and observations are chiefly the result.

The outermost point of Mossel Bay, called Cape Saint Blaize, lies in latitude 34° 10′ south; longitude 22° 18′ east (I make it in the general chart 22° 45′ east). The variation of the compass in 1797 was 27° 54′ west. The time of high water at full and change about 3 o'clock, and the rise and fall of the tides six or seven feet. The distance from the Cape is about 240 miles. During the summer months,

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when the winds blow between east and south, or directly into the bay, a heavy swell breaks upon the beach, which makes it dangerous, and frequently impracticable, for boats to land; but these winds are never so violent, nor so lasting, as at the Cape; and ships may ride at anchor in perfect security about three quarters of a mile from the landing place. The south-west winds, that frequently blow with great violence from April to September, bring into the bay a most tremendous sea, setting round Cape Saint Blaize. At this season of the year it would be highly imprudent for ships to enter Mossel Bay.

A rill of water glides over the sandy beach, where there is the best landing, and it is easily conveyed into casks in the boats, by means of a hose; but it is a very scanty stream, and not altogether free from saline impregnations. To the south-east of this landing place is another small cove tolerably sheltered, and deep enough to admit vessels of ten or twelve feet draught of water. At either of these coves piers for landing and shipping goods might conveniently be constructed, and at a small expence, as materials may be procured upon the spot. Boats, however, may land at every part of the bay; and the adjacent country would easily afford supplies for about five hundred men.

The mouths of the rivers that fall into the bay are generally blocked up with sand. They abound with various kinds of fish, and on the rocky parts of the coast are plenty of muscles and excellent oysters. The chief produce of the surrounding

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country is grain; and there is a magazine erected near the landing place, which is said to be capable of holding ten thousand bushels.

To the eastward of Mossel Bay, and about eighteen miles on the Cape side of Plettenberg's Bay, there is a remarkable inlet, which may one day become an important station. It is called the Knysna. In the first volume, I observed that the tide set into it through a narrow passage or portal, as into a dock; that this passage, though narrow, and not quite clear of rocks, would admit of small vessels. Since that observation was made on the spot, Mr. Callandar, a gentleman formerly belonging to the navy, has taken a particular survey of this arm of the sea, of which the annexed is a plan. He observes that the depth of water, and great extent, of the Knysna, running into the very centre of fine forests, render it a most eligible place for the building and repairing of ships. That vessels of five hundred tons and upwards, deeply laden, may pass the portal; and that much larger might be built therein and sent out light, to be completed in Plettenberg's Bay. That the forests contain several different kinds of durable and well grown timber, fit for that valuable purpose, as well as abundance of masts and yards. That the native fir, called geel hout (Ilex crocea), grows to upwards of sixty feet in length, and to five, six, and even eight feet in diameter; which is also the case with the native oak, bearing an acorn exactly like that of Europe, but called here, on account of a strong and disagreeable smell which it emits when green, the stinkwood tree (Quercus Africana). That the smell, however,

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is attended with the peculiar advantage of preventing the worm from attacking it.

Plettenberg's Bay is a wide open roadstead, entirely exposed to the south-east winds. The west point called Robenberg, or Seal Mountain, lies in latitude 34° 6′ south, longitude 23° 48′ east; distant from Cape Point 320 English miles. The eastern shore of the bay rounds off into the general trending of the coast, which, seen from the landing-place, terminates in a very high and regular cone-shaped mountain, called in the old Portuguese charts, Pic Formosa, but by the more modern Dutch navigators, the Grenadier's Cap. The best landing-place is about three miles and a half to the northward of the Robenberg, on a sandy beach, about five hundred and fifty yards in length, guarded at each extremity by rocky points that project into the sea. A heavy rolling sea generally sets into the bay, except in northerly and north-westerly winds; when these blow, the water is smooth. The south-west winds occasion the greatest swell of the sea.

A considerable river, called the Keerboom, falls into the bay, but the mouth is generally choaked up with sand; and the water within the bar, which forms an extensive bason, is saltish for several miles up the country. There is another small stream that runs down a very beautiful valley, but the water of this is also brackish for at least two miles from the beach. The only fresh water, and it can scarcely be so called, issues from a small well on the side of the hill, at the

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foot of which the Government house, the wood magazine, and other stores are built. The anchoring ground is good, and there is not much danger for shipping, well found with stores, to take in cargoes of timber at any season of the year.

The last bay to the eastward is that called Zwart Kops or Algoa. This bay is also open to every point of the compass from north-east to south-east, and of course affords not any shelter against the prevailing winds. The bottom, however, is generally fine sand and good holding ground. Ships may anchor in five fathoms at the distance of a mile from the general landing-place, which is on the west side of the bay; but vessels of great burden should keep farther out, on account of the very heavy swell that almost perpetually rolls in from the eastward. The latitude of the landing-place is 33° 56′ south, and longitude 26° 53′ east of Greenwich; and the distance from the Cape, in a direct line, 500 English miles. The time of high-water, at full and change of the moon, appears to be about three o'clock, and the tide rises between six and seven feet. The extent of the bay, from the western point to the eastern extremity, where it rounds off into the general trending of the coast, is about twenty miles; and the shore, except from the landing-place to the west point, is a fine, smooth, sandy beach. The rivers that fall into the bay are the *Zwart-kops*, the *Kooka*, and the *Sunday*. The mouths of all these rivers are closed up by bars of sand, which occasionally break down as the mass of water in the basons within them becomes too heavy for the mound of sand to support it; and the first south-east wind again blocks them

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up, carrying at the same time a quantity of salt water into the rivers. Close to the landing-place, however, there is a copious spring of excellent water at the extremity of a narrow slip of ground, hemmed in between a ridge of sand-hills on one side, and by a sudden rise of the country on the other. This slip is about four thousand feet long by five hundred in width. It is composed of excellent soil, has a gentle slope to the shore of the bay, and is the prettiest situation for a small fishing village that could possibly be imagined.

After indeed General Dundas had decided on the expediency of erecting a small work for the defence of the landing-place, and caused a block-house to be built and surrounded with a pallisade for the protection of the men to be stationed there, the face of the surrounding country began to put on a new appearance. The slip of ground, contiguous to the landing-place, was converted into gardens; and the stupid boors stared with wonder, and were struck with astonishment, at the variety and quantity of vegetables they produced. These people, also, soon found the benefit of a ready market for the consumption of their produce. Many trifling articles, such as milk and eggs, from which they had never before derived the least advantage, were now commuted into money. Their sheep and cattle were sold at higher rates than the butchers were accustomed to give them; and their butter, soap, and candles, which they were always under the necessity of carrying more than five hundred miles to market, fetched now, upon the spot, double the usual prices.

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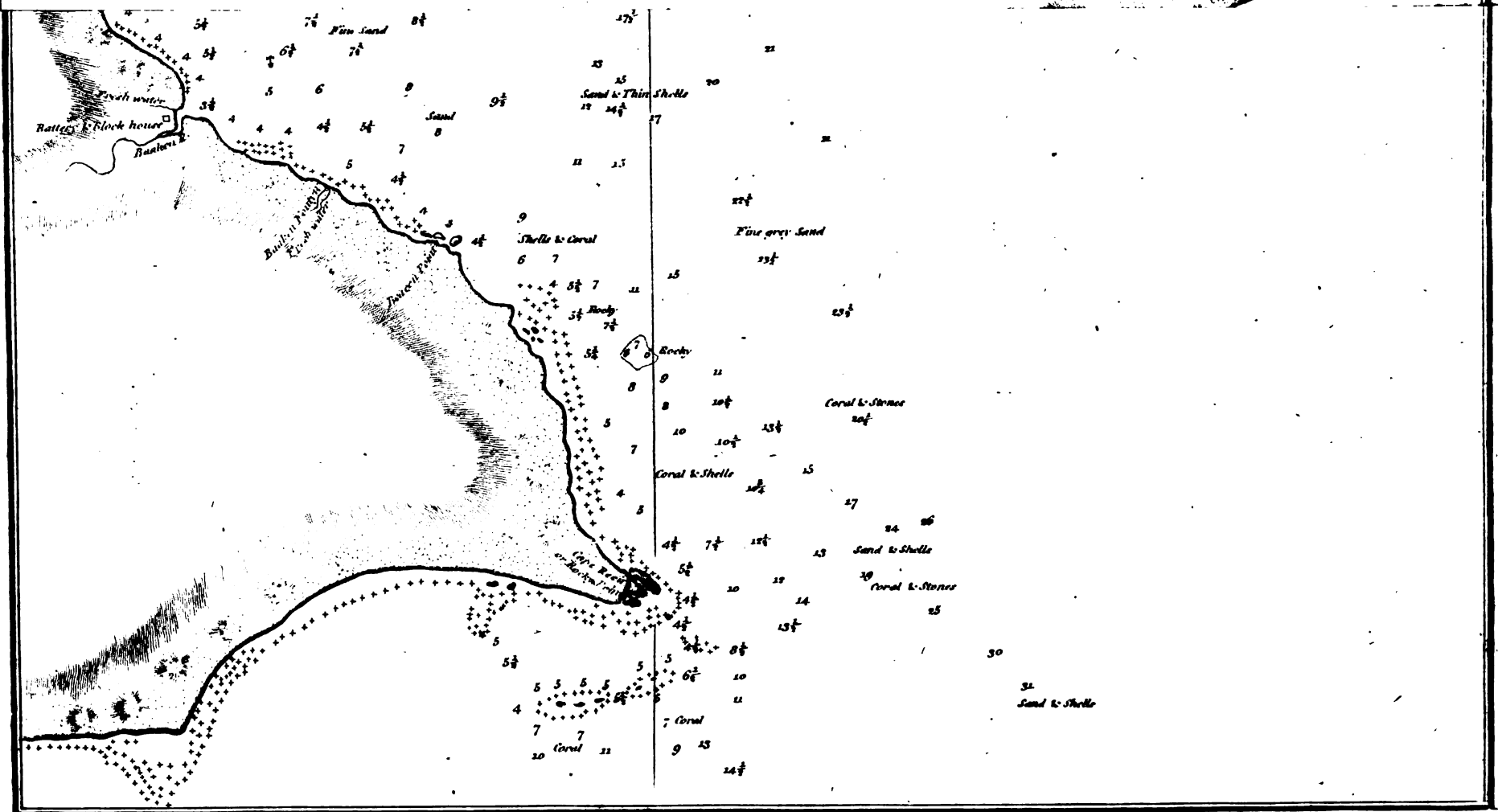
ALGOA BAY

on the S.E. Coast of



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Zwart-kops Bay would appear to hold out no inconsiderable advantages in the fishing trade. The bay swarms with the black whale, and abounds with every sort of excellent fish that frequent the coast of Southern Africa; and the neighbouring salt pan would furnish an inconsumable quantity of strong bay salt ready prepared for use. More solid advantages might still be derived to the trading part of the nation, and to the East India Company in particular, were an establishment formed at this place for the preparation of salted beef and fish. The cause of the indifferent quality of the Cape beef I have already sufficiently explained. The cattle in this part of the country, from the Snowy Mountains to the sea-coast, are generally in good condition; and the beef that is killed here takes salt and keeps just as well as in Europe. If the butchers at the Cape can afford to contract for supplying the army with beef at two-pence a pound, after having brought the cattle five, six, and seven hundred miles at their own expence, and at the loss of almost half the weight of the animals, it may easily be conceived at how very cheap a rate vessels bound on long voyages might be victualled at Zwart-kops Bay: or, if the meat here prepared should be transported to the Cape in coasting vessels, it might be afforded there considerably under sixpence a pound. The surrounding country is very fertile; and corn in almost any quantity might be purchased at the bay for less than three shillings a bushel. Hides and skins might also be salted and become an article of export. Those of the wild antelopes, even with the rough dressing of the uninformed peasantry, make very fine leather. For strength and durability the skins

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of wild animals are much preferable to those that have been domesticated.

It must however be confessed, that there is not in the whole sea-coast of this extensive colony a single bay that is not either insecure for shipping, or otherwise objectionable: yet, with all the imperfections and inconveniencies of its bays, its geographical position on the globe will, at all times, render it a powerful instrument in the hands of a maritime nation for directing the commerce of India and China into new channels, for enriching its possessors, and distressing their enemies.

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CHAP. IV.

Importance of the Cape of Good Hope, considered in a commercial Point of View, and as a Depôt for the Southern Whale Fishery.

THE original intention of the United Provinces, in forming a settlement at the Cape of Good Hope, as I have already observed, was that of its being a place of refreshment for the shipping of their East India Company, beyond which they did not consider it prudent to extend its use, till of late years, when experience had taught them the very important advantages it possessed as a military depôt for forming and preparing their troops, which were intended to serve in their Indian settlements. Ships, however, of every nation, were permitted to refit and refresh in the ports of the Cape, on payment of certain port fees that were not by any means extravagant. But as the supplying of such ships with provisions was a lucrative monopoly, acquired by favour or purchased for a sum of money, the prices paid by foreigners were never less than double, and ofttimes treble, of those paid by the inhabitants. Hence little encouragement was held out for foreign ships to call at the Cape, beside that of getting water and a few refreshments for their crews.

All commerce, except such as was brought in Dutch bottoms, was deemed clandestine and contraband; yet, such

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illicit trade was not only winked at, but encouraged, by the servants of the Company, whose salaries, indeed, were so small, that they could not subsist their families upon them. The supplies, also, for the Cape, of which the Company reserved to itself the exclusive privilege of furnishing, both from Europe and India, were sometimes so scantily and so tardily brought in, that the inhabitants were under the necessity of smuggling certain articles of daily consumption out of foreign ships for their immediate use.

As the East India Company considered the Cape in no other light than as a conveniency to their commerce and their settlements in the East Indies, to which point all their regulations respecting it tended, their system of policy seemed to require that every impediment should be thrown in the way of its becoming a flourishing settlement. The petty traffic they reserved for themselves, or allowed their servants to carry on, at this place, consisted in an exchange of colonial produce for the manufactures of Europe and India. And this traffic was not only a monopoly in the hands of the Company, or some of its servants, but a fixed price, or what is usually called a *maximum*, was imposed both on imports and exports. Other regulations, that were adopted for the government of the colony, were little calculated to promote its prosperity; and, although many of these were altered and modified from time to time, on the representations and remonstrances of that part of the inhabitants, not engaged in the service of the Company, yet few of them were productive of public benefit. The influence of the Company's servants was always sufficient to counteract the operation of any measure that promised to be

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more advantageous to the general interests of the colony, than to the individual benefit of those entrusted with the government.

There cannot be a stronger proof of this being the case than the general prosperity that prevailed under the British government; when, in the course of six years, with the administration of the same political system reserved to them by the capitulation, except in so far as regarded the abolishment of monopolies, which were nearly done away, the public revenues were more than doubled, without an additional tax or increase of rents: and property in the town was also raised to nearly the double of its former value.

The Dutch East India Company were, in fact, jealous of establishing a power at the Cape which, by too great encouragement, might, in time, shake off their yoke in Europe, and overawe their settlements in India. For, although the whole population of the colony, exclusive of slaves and Hottentots, barely amounted to 20,000 souls, men, women, and children, which were scattered over an extent of country whose dimensions are not less than 550 by 230 English miles, yet, as it was not convenient for the Government to keep up a great force at the Cape, these colonists, few as they were, felt themselves sufficiently strong to give it, at least, a good deal of trouble. Nor, indeed, could it always place a firm dependence on the forces that were stationed there, these being chiefly hired troops engaged for limited service, of which both officers and men entered frequently into family connections with the inhabitants. Thus circumstanced, it would have been no dif-

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ficult matter for the colonists to cut off, at any time, those refreshments, without which the ships of their East India Company would be unable to proceed on their voyage to India.

The Dutch settlers seemed to be fully aware of the advantage which their situation gave them in this respect in making their late weak attempt at independence, which, though then unsuccessful, they may again feel themselves inclined to renew, if their old masters should be allowed to retain the colony under the same regulations and restrictions as heretofore. The present weakness and the exhausted finances of the Batavian Republic will scarcely be able to support even the same degree of authority over its subjects here as before the capture; and the Asiatic Council, on finding themselves no longer capable of holding the government of the Cape, as a conveniency to their trade, might, probably, be the less scrupulous in rendering it a mischievous agent against us. Indeed, exclusive of any vindictive motives, they might, perhaps, be tempted by the brilliant idea of establishing a free mart of import and export at the extremity of Africa; which, like another Tyre or Alexandria, should concentrate in itself the resources and supplies of every other region of the globe.

If, indeed, at the late negociations at Amiens, the Cape of Good Hope had been declared a free port, as is said to have been proposed, though the result would certainly have proved extremely profitable to speculators and the inferior nations of Europe trading to the East, yet such a measure would as

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infallibly have proved ruinous to the concerns of the English United Company of merchants trading to the East Indies. The sales of Leadenhall-street would have suffered beyond calculation; a speedy termination would have been the consequence to their monopolizing system; whilst, excepting a few English adventurers trading under neutral flags, the English nation would be the last to benefit by such a measure. The Danes, Swedes, Spaniards, Portugueze and, above all others, the Americans, would soon find their advantage in purchasing cargoes of India and China goods at the Cape of Good Hope, at a moderate advance and without duties, in preference of applying to the London market, where they are liable to duties or puzzled with drawbacks; or rather than prosecute the long and expensive voyage through the Eastern Seas. The Americans, indeed, and the English adventurers, would become the great carriers between India and China, and the Cape of Good Hope.

In like manner it is to be apprehended that, if at a general peace the Dutch should be allowed to keep possession of the settlement, the French, having neither credit nor capital of their own, will not only, by means of the Cape, consolidate a force in the Isles of France and Bourbon, to be ready to act against us and to disturb the tranquillity of our Indian settlements, but that they will likewise oblige the Dutch to allow an emporium of Eastern produce at this extremity of Africa for the supply of foreign nations, and particularly of the Spaniards and Portugueze on the Brazil coast, to the prejudice of the interests of the British East India Company.

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It was an opinion, at one time pretty generally entertained, that by reason of the long and expensive voyage to India, and of the moderate profits with which the Company was satisfied, the throwing open of the India trade would be less injurious to the interests of the Company than ruinous to the concerns of the private merchant who might be induced to engage in it. Yet we see great numbers of ships every year proceeding, even as far as China, under foreign flags, but with British capitals; and it is certain that the Americans, with very small ships and proportionate capitals, find their account in the India and China trade, exclusive of that part which employs them in carrying home the private property of individuals, who have enriched themselves in India. The Americans, with the returns of their lumber cargo, which they can always dispose of at the Cape, and the produce of their South Sea Fishery in oil and seal-skins, will always be able to purchase a cargo of China goods, part of which they may find convenient to dispose of at the Cape on the return-voyage, in exchange for wine and brandy. With the rest they not only supply the West Indian and American possessions of foreign powers, as well as the markets of their own extensive country, but it is well known they have, of late years, very materially checked the re-exportation of India and China goods from England to our own islands in the Atlantic.

It is obvious, then, that the Americans, by trading direct to India and China, can afford to undersell the English West India merchants in our own islands, notwithstanding the drawbacks allowed on export from Leadenhall-street; and, consequently, that they may find their advantage in being allowed

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to dispose of the whole or part of their cargoes at the Cape of Good Hope; to the prejudice of the British East India Company and the encouragement of English smugglers, of which, indeed, the Directors were not without their apprehensions, even whilst the Cape remained in our hands as a dependency of the Crown.

And if the Americans can contrive to make this a beneficial commerce, under all the disadvantages of working up a capital to trade with in the course of a long protracted voyage, how much more so will ships, under neutral flags and English capitals, carry on a lucrative trade to and from the southern emporium of Africa; more injurious, in proportion as they are more active, than the ships actually employed by foreign merchants?

Here, then, is another cogent reason that, one might suppose, would have had some influence on the minds of the Directors, and have operated so far, at least, as to have compelled them to state to Government the danger to their concerns of relinquishing the Cape; whereas the indifference they thought fit to assume, though too affected to be real, unfortunately had the ill effect of disparaging and undervaluing it in the eyes of the nation. If they should be inclined to plead a want of information with regard to the treaty of peace, let them recollect that, under the administration of Lord Bute, after the preliminaries of peace had been signed by the Duke of Bedford, the latter was instructed, at the instance of the Court of Directors, to alter an article that related to the Carnatic, or to break off

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the negociation; and the article was altered accordingly. Thus might it also have been with regard to the Cape of Good Hope, had the Directors consulted the real interests of the East India Company. But, as there is reason to believe that, though late, they have seen their error, and that they are now convinced the Cape must either become a British territory, or their interests will very materially suffer; it is to be hoped they will shew themselves as solicitous to remove the evil as they were before indifferent in preventing it; for, should the present opportunity be allowed to slip, *Tempus erit magno cum optaverit emptum.*

What the Dutch meant to have done with it, had not the present war broken out, is uncertain. I was told, from good authority, that their intention was to give it a fair trial of ten or twelve years, unclogged and unfettered; to endeavour to raise it, by every encouragement, to its greatest possible value as a territorial possession; to admit the commerce of all nations on equal terms with their own, and to allow an influx of settlers from Europe; if, at the end of that time, the revenues were not so far improved as not only to meet the ordinary and contingent expences of the establishment and the garrison, but to produce a surplus for the use of the State, that they should then consider how to dispose of it to the best advantage.

All ships were, accordingly, admitted to an entry of European, American, or Indian produce and manufactures, on payment of a duty of 10 per cent. on the invoice prices; and

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all Indian goods, teas and spices excepted, were suffered to be again exported on a drawback of the same amount as the duty. How far such a regulation might interfere with the interests of our East India Company, if at a peace the Dutch should keep the Cape, I am not sufficiently acquainted with the subject to determine; but such a plan would seem to open a wide door for smuggling Indian commodities into Europe, under English capitals, to an amount that must be alarming to the Directors themselves.

The operation of this measure will be checked, to a certain degree, by the present war, which, I am sanguine enough to hope, will ultimately be the means of once more annexing the southern extremity of Africa to the dominions of Great Britain. In such an event, the determination of securing it, at a peace, will be a more important object than the consideration how its government is to be administered; whether as a dependency of the Crown, or as a territorial possession of the East India Company. The interests, indeed, of the two, are so intimately connected, that any question of privilege, in a matter of such national importance, is a mere secondary consideration, and ought, therefore, to bend to circumstances. The interests of the Company, during our late tenure, were, as I have shewn, secured and promoted in every respect. They had their agent established at the Cape, and not the smallest article of Eastern produce, not even the most trifling present, was allowed on any consideration to be landed, without a positive declaration, in writing, from their said agent, that the landing of such article did not interfere with, nor was in any shape injurious to, the concerns of his em-

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ployers. It was, indeed, one of the first objects of the Crown, after taking possession, to consult the interests of the East India Company in every point of view; not only in providing for their conveniency and security, by its happy position and local ascendancy, but by opening a new market and intermediate depository for their trade and commodities. It was even proposed to place the custom-house under their sole direction, in order to preclude any grounds of complaint. In a word, in every point of view, except that of appointing the civil establishment, the Cape might have actually been considered as a settlement of the East India Company.

Leaving, however, the question of privilege to be discussed by those who are better informed, and more interested in its decision than myself, I proceed to enquire,

To what extent the Cape of Good Hope might have been rendered advantageous to the interests of the British empire, as an emporium of Eastern produce?—as furnishing articles of export for consumption in Europe and the West Indies?—as taking in exchange for colonial produce, articles of British growth and manufacture?

And lastly, to consider the important advantages that might be derived from it, as a central depôt for the Southern Whale Fishery.

It is a point of too intricate and nice a nature for me to decide, how far it might be advisable for Great Britain to establish at the Cape an entrepôt for Indian produce, in the

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hands, and under the direction, of the East India Company, and shall, therefore, content myself with barely suggesting some of the probable consequences that might result from such a measure.

The grand objection against making the Cape an emporium between Europe and the East Indies, and between the West Indies, America, and Asia, is the prejudice it would necessarily occasion to the sales of Leadenhall-street, and the consequent diminution of his Majesty's customs; for, though the East India Company might be made responsible to the Crown for the duties on the amount of its sales at the Cape, yet the intention of the emporium would entirely be defeated, if the duties demanded there so far enhanced the value of the Indian commodities, as to make it equally eligible for foreign shipping to proceed to India, or to resort to the London market. And if these duties were reduced, it would obviously be attended with a loss to the revenues of the Crown; unless, indeed, the augmentation of the sales, in consequence of the measure, should be found to be adequate to the reduction of the duties.

It is liable also to another objection, grounded on the detriment that would ensue to the London market in general. It is certain that foreign merchants, purchasing goods at Leadenhall-street, find their advantage by laying in, at the same time and sending in the same ship, an assorted cargo, the produce of our colonies and the manufactures of Britain. Now if these merchants could contrive to purchase Indian articles

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at a cheaper market than that of London, they might also be induced to make up their cargo with other articles at the same place, to the prejudice of the London trader.

These objections may, perhaps, lose much of their weight by the following considerations. The East India Company's trade, according to the Directors' own account, is fully competent to the whole supply of the East India and China markets, in commodities of European growth and manufacture: and they are satisfied in supplying the demands of those markets merely without a loss, in order to monopolize the trade and cut out foreign nations, who are thus obliged to purchase cargoes chiefly in exchange for specie. Even the privilege of 3000 tons allowed to the private merchant, by the terms of the Company's late charter, is said never to be filled up; to such a low rate have they reduced the prices of European articles in India and China, that the private trader finds no advantage in sending goods on his own account, on a moderate freight, to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope. The Americans are the only nation who, by their fisheries, are enabled to work themselves into a cargo to exchange for India and China goods; with which they supply their own colonies and the West India islands, to the prejudice of the sales of the British East India Company.

It will result, from these considerations, that the East India Company, upon the same plan, could supply their emporium at the Cape with the produce and manufactures of Great Britain to any amount, and at so cheap a rate as to undersell

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any other nation. That the Americans, finding no longer a market at the Cape for their lumber cargoes, would confine their export trade to articles of peltry and ginseng, which they might be induced to bring to the emporium in exchange for teas, nankeen cloth, and muslins, at a moderate advance price, such as would not make it worth their while to proceed to India and China. That other foreign nations, trading to this emporium, might be accommodated there with British goods and manufactures, nearly on the same terms as in London, to make up an assorted cargo. That a very extensive trade might be opened with the coast of Brazil and the ports of South America, both in Indian commodities and articles of the growth and manufacture of Great Britain; those ports, on that continent, belonging to Portugal being now supplied through Lisbon at an enormously high rate; and those of Spain, frequently without any supply at all, but what they receive from English whalers and others in a clandestine manner.

The amount of European and Indian goods (the latter chiefly prize articles) exported from the Cape in the last four years, generally in Portugueze ships by English adventurers, or in English whalers, for the coast of Brazil, the West India islands, and Mozambique, was about 850,000 rixdollars, or 170,000 pounds currency. On the articles of European growth and manufacture, whose value might amount to about half of the above sum, there must have been a very considerable profit to the private merchant at the Cape, beyond what would be required by the East India Company, and consequently they must have been sold at a high rate. Yet, under

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these disadvantages, the trade to the coast of Brazil might have been extended to many times the amount.

As in the case of the Cape becoming a commercial depôt in the hands of the East India Company, the consumption, in Spanish and Portugueze America, of Eastern produce, would increase to a very great extent, for all which they would pay in specie; and as the Company feel the greatest want of specie for their China trade, and still more for the necessary uses of their Indian empire, the supply of hard money they would thus obtain, would considerably lessen, if not entirely put an end to, the difficulties under which they now labor on that account. And the additional quantities of Indian produce and manufactures that would be required for this new channel of trade might prove, in some degree, an indemnity to the natives of India for what the Company draw from them in the shape of revenue to be sent to Europe.

The quantity of European and Indian produce consumed in South America is by no means trifling. I observed in Rio de Janeiro a whole street consisting of shops, and every shop filled with Indian muslins and Manchester goods, which, having come through Lisbon, were offered, of course, at enormously high prices. The trade, it is true, that subsists between England and Portugal, might render it prudent not materially to interfere with the Portugueze settlements; but the case is very different with regard to those of Spain. The Mother Country, more intent upon drawing specie from the mine than in promoting the happiness of its subjects in this

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part of the world, by encouraging trade and honest industry, suffers them to remain frequently without any supply of European produce and manufacture. It is no uncommon thing, I understand, to see the inhabitants of Spanish America with silver buckles, clasps, and buttons, silver stirrups and bits to their bridles, whilst the whole of their clothing is not worth a single shilling. The whalers, who intend to make the coasts of Lima and Peru, are well acquainted with this circumstance, and generally carry out with them a quantity of ready made second-hand clothing, which they dispose of at a high rate in exchange for Spanish dollars. All this branch of trade might, with great advantage to both parties, be carried on from the Cape of Good Hope.

The emporium, therefore, being supplied by the East India Company with European goods, as well as with India and China commodities, the first to be sold at a very small advance on the London market price, and the latter exempt, or nearly so, from all duties, might be the means of putting a stop to the clandestine traders upon British capitals, but navigating under neutral colors, which has long been a subject of unavailing complaint. The Directors of the East India Company would, no doubt, be able to decide as to the rate at which it would be worth the while of these adventurers to make their purchases at the Cape, rather than continue their voyage to India or China.

Such an entrepôt might likewise be the means of opening a lucrative branch of trade with the West Indies; a trade that would not only put a stop to that which, of late years, the

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Americans have so successfully carried on, but might open a new source for colonial produce, especially for its wines, which, with a little more attention and management in the manufacture, might be made to supersede those of Madeira, that are now consumed there to a very considerable amount, notwithstanding their enormous prices, which limit their consumption to the higher ranks of the islanders. Good Cape Madeira might be delivered, at any of the West India islands, at less than one-fourth of the expence of real Madeira.

A new branch of trade might also be opened between the Cape and New South Wales, the latter supplying the former with coals, of which they have lately discovered abundant mines, in exchange for wine, cattle, butter, and articles of clothing.

If, however, the East India Company, after making the experiment, should find it injurious to its interests to continue the Cape as an emporium for Indian produce; it will always be in its power to reduce it to the same state in which it remained whilst in the hands of the Dutch; to clog it as much as possible with duties and difficulties, sufficient to deter all ships, except their own, from trading to it; and, in short, to allow them no other commerce than the purchase of provisions in exchange for bills or hard money. It will always be at their discretion to admit or to send away all foreign adventurers. By the existing laws of the colony, no person can reside there, but by special licence; and the Governor is authorised to send away whomsoever he may be

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inclined to consider as an improper person to remain in the settlement.

If the experiment should succeed, the obvious result would be an exclusive trade to India and China vested in the English East India Company. The commerce carried on by the Americans, their only dangerous rivals at present, would be diverted into another channel, or, at all events, would suffer a considerable reduction. Should the Dutch ever rise again as an independent nation, they would find it expedient to court the friendship and alliance of Great Britain in the East; and, in the present low state of their finances, would be well satisfied with the exclusive privilege of the spice-trade, and with any portion of the carrying-trade that Great Britain might think proper to assign to them. Any encroachment on the part of this nation might easily be checked by a refusal of the usual accommodations at the Cape, without which their trade and navigation to the Eastern Seas must totally be superseded. If, at a peace, they are to become a dependency of France, directly or indirectly, the Cape in our hands will always enable us to cramp their commerce to the eastward. As to France, having neither credit nor capital, without shipping and without manufactures, its trade to the East will, in the nature of things, be inconsiderable for a long time. Her first object will be to send out troops and stores to endeavour to destroy, at some future period, our trade and possessions in India, which she has long regarded with envy and jealousy—and we have already shewn how far the Cape may be instrumental in checking or in forwarding,

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according to the power who holds it, her projects in this part of the world.

I now proceed to inquire to what extent the Cape of Good Hope may be considered as advantageous to the interests of the British nation, by furnishing articles of export for general consumption in Europe and the West Indies. Its importance, in this point of view, will readily be decided from the statement of a few simple facts collected from the custom-house books, together with the supplies that were consumed by the army, the navy, and the inhabitants during our possession. It may be observed, however, that no true estimate can be formed from such statement of what the colony is capable of producing, cramped as it always has been by restrictive regulations, which the indolent dispositions of the settlers tended but too much to cherish; and, therefore, that the following account of colonial produce actually consumed and exported, is not to be taken as the standard measure of its worth, as a territorial possession, nor considered as any comparative quantity of what it might supply, when governed by a system of salutary laws, and inhabited by an industrious and intelligent race of men.

The chief articles of colonial growth and produce, consumed upon the spot and exported to the East Indies, Europe, and America, may be comprized under the following heads:

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Grain and Pulse	*Salt Provisions*
Wine and Brandy	*Soap and Candles*
Wool	*Aloes*
Hides and Skins	*Ivory*
Whale Oil and Bone	*Tobacco*
Dried Fruits	

I shall take a short view of each of these articles separately.

GRAIN AND PULSE.

The wheat produced at the Cape is said to be as good and heavy as that of most other parts of the world. A load of this grain consists of ten *muids* or sacks, equal to 31 Winchester bushels: and a muid or $3\frac{1}{10}$ Winchester bushels, usually weighs 180 Dutch pounds, which is equal to 191¼ pounds English. The returns are from 10 to 70, according to the nature of the soil, and the supply of water. Mr. Duckitt, the English farmer, informed me that he obtained seventy for one from a new sort of wheat, of a small hard grain, at the farm of Klapmutz, near the Cape, where the returns of the ordinary kind, sown under similar circumstances, were only eighteen and twenty. A small quantity of wheat only is raised on such farms as are within the distance of one day's journey from the Cape, the best part of the ground in those contiguous to the peninsula being chiefly employed in extensive vineyards; and still less grain is cultivated beyond the distance of a three days' journey from the town, where the inhabitants are all graziers. The quantity of grain that might

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be raised may be considered as indefinite; but the great distance from any market, the badness of the roads, and the weak state of the cattle, will always operate against an extended cultivation. In addition to these obstacles, the farmer had no encouragement given to him to raise more than a limited quantity, as the prices were always fixed by the Government, and bore a proportion to the state of the harvest. If, therefore, the harvest happened to fail, it was an advantageous circumstance to the farmer; as he received the same money for a smaller quantity, and had less trouble and less expence in bringing it up to town.

The surplus, purchased by Government, in fruitful years, was laid up in magazines against a season of scarcity. At the time of the capture there were found in store near 40,000 muids, part of which was sent to England; but the following year not affording a productive crop, the scarcity was so great, that Government found it necessary to prohibit the use of white bread; nor, since that period, has it been able to lay up in store a single bushel of wheat; nor to allow of any exportation, beyond what was necessary for the consumption of the crews of the several ships during their voyage; and this was generally sent on board in biscuit and flour.

The Dutch seldom paid more than from 20 to 40 rixdollars the load; the English never less than from 40 to 60 rixdollars, five of which make a pound currency, and which, being paper money, was generally 20 per cent. under a pound sterling. The bakers of the Cape were required to

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take out a licence annually, and their number was limited; so that, by the regulations of the police which, in this respect, were excellent, the inhabitants had always bread at a reasonable price.

Barley is a productive grain at the Cape of Good Hope. If the rains happen to fall early, in the month of April for instance, there is no soil, however impoverished by a continual succession of crops, none, however shallow and poor, that will not yield a tolerable crop of barley; or, to speak more correctly, of *beer* or *big*; for the only trial of flat-eared barley I ever saw in the colony, was at the Governor's seat of *Ronde-bosch*, and it did not seem to promise much success. The former is just as good as the latter at this place; for the Cape boor, having always plenty of animal food, would disdain to eat bread mixed with barley-meal. The only use that is made of it is to feed their horses. For this purpose a great part of that which is grown in the vicinity of the Cape is cut down when green, just as the ear begins to shoot; the dry barley and the chaff is brought from the opposite side of the isthmus. The number of horses kept by the English, and the superior manner in which they were fed, encouraged the cultivation of barley to the prejudice of that of wheat. At the capture of the colony, the market price of barley was 1½ rix-dollar the muid, but General Sir James Craig, seeing the necessity of keeping up a certain number of cavalry as part of the garrison, and knowing that this grain would necessarily rise in consequence of it, made a voluntary offer of 2½ rix-dollars the muid, in order to secure a certain portion from

each farmer for the use of the garrison, which they instantly accepted. The following year barley rose to five dollars the muid, and, at one time, was not to be had for less than ten. A brewer, of the name of Van Reenen, employs a small quantity, but the beer he makes is so execrable, that none drink it but such as cannot afford to purchase European beer.

Rye is a thriving grain at the Cape, but is little used except for cattle, and then only while it is green; and oats run so much into straw, that they are fit only for horses as green fodder.

Peas, beans, and kidney beans are abundantly productive, and might be supplied to any amount; but they are in little demand except by ships that touch at the Cape. Indian corn or maize grows here fully as well as in any part of the world, and might be cultivated to any extent; the plant for cattle, and the prolific heads for hogs and poultry. The same may be observed with regard to the various kinds of millet, three of which I cultivated here with the greatest success, but neither one nor the other are much known beyond the Cape peninsula.

The different kinds of grain and pulse that are brought up to Cape Town, except oats, are subject to a certain toll at the barrier, which, at the prices they bore under the Dutch Government, amounted to about the tythe or one-tenth of their value. The following table shews the quantity of each that

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passed the barrier, and which, of course, includes the consumption of the town, the garrison, and the navy, as well as the exportation, in four successive years.

	Years.	Muids of Wheat.	Muids of Barley.	Muids of Rye.	Muids of Peas.	Muids of Beans.
	1799	34,951	17,130	184	435	344
	1800	35,685	25,641½	444	366	326
	1801	32,322¼	21,054	835½	808½	471
	1802	28,402½	21,084	441½	168	216
Total of 4 years		131,361¼	84,909½	1905	1777½	1358

Of the above quantity of wheat were annually required,

For the use of the Inhabitants	-	18,000
Army	-	8,000
Navy	-	4,000
Total	Muids	30,000

So that in none of the above years could a greater quantity be spared, for ships calling for refreshments, than four or five thousand muids; and in the last year the inhabitants and the garrison were reduced to an allowance. It may, therefore, be fairly concluded that the Cape, in its present state, is not capable of exporting any grain.

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WINE AND BRANDY.

These two articles, with those above mentioned, may be considered as the staple commodities of the Cape of Good Hope. Grapes grow with the greatest luxuriancy in every part of this extensive colony; but the cultivation of the vine is little understood, or, to speak more properly, is not attended to with that diligence which in other countries is bestowed upon it. Hence the wines are susceptible of great improvement, and the quantity of being increased indefinitely.

Ten or twelve distinct kinds of wine are manufactured at the Cape, and each of those has a different flavour and quality at the different farms on which they are produced. From difference of soil, from situation, and management, scarcely any two vineyards, of the same kind of grape, give the same wine. By throwing under the press the ripe and unripe grapes, together with the stalk, most of the wines have either a thinness and a slight acidity, or, for want of a proper degree of fermentation, and from being pressed when over ripe, acquire a sickly saccharine taste. An instance of the former is perceptible in that called *Steen*, which resembles the Rhenish wines; and of the latter, in that which is known by the name of *Constantia*. It is generally supposed that this wine is the produce of two farms only, of that name; whereas, the same grape, the muscadel, grows at every farm; and at some of them in Drakenstein the wine pressed

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from it is equally good, if not superior, to the Constantia, though sold at one-sixth part of the price; of such importance is a name.

This wine sells at the Cape for 70 or 80 rixdollars the *half aum*, a cask which ought to contain 20 gallons; but the avaricious propensity of the proprietors, increasing with the demands for their wine, has led them to fabricate false casks, few of them that come to England being found to measure more than seventeen or eighteen gallons; many not above sixteen. And if they find out that the wine applied for is to be sent abroad, they are sure to adulterate it with some other thin wine. For, according to their own returns, the quantity exported and consumed in Cape Town, as in the case of Madeira wine, greatly exceeds the quantity manufactured.

By a settlement made between the Dutch Commissaries General, in the year 1793, and the owners of the two farms of Great and Little Constantia, the latter were bound to furnish, for the use of Government, 30 aums each, every year, at the rate of 50 rixdollars the aum; which was regularly taken, after being tasted and sealed up in presence of persons appointed for that purpose, by the English Government, to the no little annoyance of the Great Lord of Constantia, who is the son and successor to the man of whom Mr. Le Vaillant has drawn a very entertaining portrait. The wine was paid for out of the Colonial Treasury, and the whole of it, under

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Lord Macartney's government, sent home to the Secretary of State, for the disposal of his Majesty.

The quantity of Constantia wine exported in four successive years was,

	Years.	Half Aums.	Value.
In	1799	157	11,752
	1800	188	14,070
	1801	173	13,007
	1802	210	15,745
In four years		728	54,504 R.D.

The best bodied wine, that is made at the Cape, is the Madeira, considerable quantities of which were usually sent to Holland and to the Dutch settlements in India. The Americans, also, have taken small quantities, of late years, in exchange for staves, a trade that seems susceptible of very considerable augmentation. The English merchants at the Cape have made up cargoes of the different sorts of wines, both to the East and the West Indies, and they have been tried in the northern nations of Europe. But they universally complain that the wines seldom agree with the samples, and that they frequently turn sour; so little regard for reputation have the *Koopmen* of the Cape. Confined to this spot from their birth, they have had little opportunity of

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improvement from education, and none from travel, and are consequently ignorant of the nature of foreign trade. If their wines are once on board ship, they conclude there is an end of the transaction, and, if previously sold, whether they arrive in good or bad condition, is no concern of theirs.

If the precaution was taken of separating the ripe from the unripe grapes, the sound fruit from the decayed, and the stalks rejected; if the must was suffered to remain in open vessels, so that a large surface might be exposed to the free contact of the atmospheric air, until it had undergone the last degree of vinous fermentation; if after this it was carefully drawn off into close vessels and kept unmolested for twelve months, there is little doubt that a good, pleasant, sound bodied wine might be obtained, free from that extraneous and peculiar taste which all the Cape wines possess in a greater or less degree, owing entirely to the slovenly manner in which the process is conducted, and the vines being cut down so low as to suffer the branches of fruit to rest on the soil.

The country boor, having no surplus stock of casks, is under the necessity of selling to the merchant in the town his new wine; and here it is mixed and adulterated in a variety of ways. The pipe is called a *legger*, and contains 8 *half aums* or 160 gallons, and each legger pays to Government a duty, on entering the town, of three rixdollars. The price paid to the farmer is generally from 20 to 30 rixdollars the *legger*, which, after adulteration, is sold again from 40

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to 60 rixdollars, and frequently at the rate of 80 to 100 rixdollars.

The article of brandy might become a very important commodity in the export trade of this settlement, provided the cultivators of the vine were instructed in, and would take the trouble of, carrying the manufacture of it to that state of improvement of which it is susceptible. At present they have no proper distillatory apparatus, nor knowledge to conduct those which they have. The filth that is usually thrown into the still, with the refuse of the wines, is disgusting; and the imperfect process is not sufficient to destroy the extraneous and disagreeable taste communicated by the loathsome materials. The whole operation is usually committed to the care of a slave, who has little knowledge of, and less interest in, the business he is commanded to perform: he falls asleep; his fire goes out; a rapid blaze succeeds to make up for loss of time; the spirit thus carries over with it a strong empyreumatic flavor which it never loses. This spirit has been tried in the East Indies, but it seems they give the preference to arrack. If distilled with proper care, and under proper management, it might become a valuable article for the navy; and would, no doubt, find a market in both North and South America. Brandy is exported at 80 to 160 rixdollars the *legger*, and is subject to the same toll, on entering the town, as wines. And both wine and brandy are liable to a further duty of 5 rixdollars the legger on exportation. The following table shews the

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quantity of wines and brandy that passed the barrier, and which, of course, includes the consumption of the town, of the army, and navy, as well as the exportation in four successive years.

	Years.	Leggers of Wine.	Leggers of Brandy.
	1799	6953⅛	598½
	1800	5199⅞	472¾
	1801	5463⅞	320⅛
	1802	4031⅛	273⅛
In four years		21,649¼	1665¼

Of the above quantity have been exported from 400 to 800 *leggers* of wine, and from 30 to 100 of brandy, annually, beside the Constantia; the rest has been consumed in the town. So that the whole export value of wines, including the Constantia, and the brandy, may amount, one year with another, to about 50,000 rixdollars, or 10,000*l.* currency.

The gradual reduction of the quantity brought up to town, as appears in the table, is no proof of the diminution of the quantity manufactured, but shews rather that the wine-farmer, by being in a condition to increase his stock of casks, is enabled to keep his wine at home, and not obliged, as he usually was, to deliver it to the wine merchants in the Cape at their own price. This circumstance has contributed not a little to the melioration of the colonial wines.

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WOOL.

This article is likely to become a source of colonial revenue, which, till of late years, was never thought of; and certainly never turned to any account, before the Deputy Paymaster's bills on his Majesty's Paymasters-General became so scarce, and bore such high premiums, that the private merchant was glad to make his remittances in any kind of merchandize rather than paper. The wool of the common broad-tailed sheep of the Cape is little better than hair, and is considered of no value whatsoever; but there is a mixed breed in the colony, of Spanish and English, introduced by the late Colonel Gordon, the wool of which is extremely beautiful, and seems to improve by every cross. A family of the name of Van Reenen has paid some attention to this subject, and by procuring European sheep, from time to time, out of ships that called for refreshments, has succeeded in improving their stock beyond their expectations.

No trouble whatsoever is bestowed upon the sheep; they neither wash nor salve them, nor, till they were instructed by the English agriculturist, did they know how to shear them. Yet, the wool taken off in this rough condition has sold, as I have been informed, in the London market at 3*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* the pound. By a proper degree of attention being paid to the sheep, and by obviating any degeneracy in the breed from a cross with the common Cape sheep, this article bids fair to become, in the course of a few years, one of the

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most valuable and productive exports that the settlement is capable of furnishing. The mutton of the Cape sheep is also of a very inferior quality, being coarse and void of flavour; and they have little intestine or net fat, nor, indeed, any other except what is accumulated on the tail, which is of too oleaginous a nature to be employed alone as tallow. In every respect, therefore, the mixed Spanish breed is preferable to that which, at present, constitutes the numerous flocks of the greater part of the farmers. I understand that the Dutch government is at this moment paying a very marked attention to the improvement of the breed of sheep in the colony, and that they have adopted such regulations as are likely, in the course of a few years, to supplant the broad-tailed species with the infinitely more valuable cross with the Spanish sheep.

HIDES AND SKINS.

The exportation of these articles, both dried and salted raw, has been increased to a very considerable degree under the British Government, and the price has consequently augmented in proportion to the demand for them. Ox hides, which formerly might be purchased at half a dollar a-piece, rose to two dollars. They are subject, on exportation, to a duty of threepence-halfpenny a-piece. The quantity exported may amount to between 2000 and 3000 annually. Those that are taken off the cattle, killed in the country, are employed by the farmers in various uses, but principally as harness for their waggons, and as thongs to supply the place of cordage. The skins of sheep, that are killed in the country,

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are converted into small sacks and other articles of household use, and employed as clothing for the slaves and Hottentots, and are still worn by the farmers themselves, after a rude kind of dressing, as pantaloons. In the Cape they are somewhat better prepared, and are used for clothing of slaves, for gloves, and other purposes. Few of them are exported. Skins of the wild antelopes and of the leopard are brought occasionally to the Cape market, but the quantity is so small as scarcely to deserve mentioning as articles of export.

The same may be observed with regard to ostrich feathers, the value of which, exported annually, amounts to a mere trifle. The boors, very imprudently, rob every nest of this bird that falls in their way; preferring the immediate benefit of the eggs to the encouragement of a future source of profit. The boors, indeed, derive little advantage from ostrich feathers, being presents generally expected by the butchers' servants, who go round the country to purchase cattle and sheep for the Cape market. The whole value of one year's exportation of this article does not exceed 1000 rixdollars; of hides and skins of every denomination not more than 5000 or 6000 rixdollars.

WHALE OIL AND BONE.

The vast number of black whales that constantly frequented Table Bay induced a company of merchants at the Cape to establish a whale fishery, to be confined solely to Table Bay, in order to avoid the great expence of purchasing any other kind of craft than a few common whale boats.

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With these alone they caught as many whales as they could wish for; filling, in a short space of time, all their casks and cisterns with oil. Having gone thus far they perceived that, although whale-oil was to be procured to almost any amount at a small expence, they were still likely to be considerable losers by the concern. The consumption of the colony in this article was trifling; they had no ships of their own to send it to Europe, nor casks to put on board others on freight. Their oil, therefore, continued to lie as a dead stock in their cisterns, till the high premium of bills on England induced some of the British merchants to purchase and make their remittances in this article. The price at the Cape was about 40 rixdollars the *legger*, or tenpence sterling per gallon. Sometimes, indeed, ships from the Southern Whale Fishery took a few casks to complete their cargoes, but, in general, they preferred to be at the trouble of taking the fish themselves, in or near some of the bays within the limits of the colony, where they are so plentiful and so easily caught, as to ensure their success. It is remarked that all the whales which have been caught in the bays are females; of a small size, generally from 30 to 50 feet in length, and yielding from six to ten tons of oil each. The bone is very small, and, on that account, of no great value.

The Whale Fishing Company, finding there was little probability of their disposing of the oil without a loss, thought of the experiment of converting it into soap. The great quantity of sea-weed, the *fucus maximus*, or *buccinalis*, so called from its resemblance to a trumpet, which grows on the western shore of Table Bay, suggested itself as an abundant

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source for supplying them with kelp or barilla; and from the specification of a patent obtained in London, for freeing animal oils of their impurities, and the strong and offensive smell that train-oil in particular acquires, they endeavoured to reduce to practice this important discovery. The experiment, however, failed; for though they succeeded in making soap, whose quality, in the most essential points might, perhaps, be fully as good as was desired, yet the smell was so disgusting that nobody would purchase it. Unluckily for them there came in, also, just at that time, a cargo of prize soap, which was not only more agreeable to the smell, but was sold at a rate lower than the Company could afford to manufacture theirs of train-oil. Being thus thwarted in all their views, they sold the whole concern to an English merchant, who was supposed to be turning it to a tolerably good account, when it was signified to him, by the present Dutch Government, that the exclusive privilege of fishing on the coasts of Africa, within the limits of the colony, was granted to a company of merchants residing in Amsterdam; and, therefore, that he could not be allowed to continue the concern.

DRIED FRUITS.

Under this head the most important articles are almonds and raisins; of which a quantity might be raised sufficient for the consumption of all Europe. Many thousand acres of land, now lying waste, might be planted with vineyards, within sight of Table Mountain. In like manner might the whole sea-coast, on both sides of Africa, be planted with

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vines. In no part of the world are better grapes produced than at the Cape of Good Hope; and it is unnecessary to observe that good grapes, under proper management, cannot fail to make good raisins; but with respect to this, as well as most other articles, little care and less labor are bestowed in the preparation. As in the making of wine the whole bunch is thrown under the press, so, in the process for converting grapes into raisins, neither the rotten nor the unripe fruit is removed; the consequence of which is, that the bad raisins soon spoil those that otherwise would have been good.

The almonds are, in general, small, but of a good quality. The trees thrive well in the very driest and worst of soils; in no situation better than among the rocks on the sides of mountains, where nothing else would grow; and they will bear fruit the fifth year from the seed. The quantity, therefore, of these nuts might be produced to an indefinite amount. The consumption in the Cape of both these articles is very considerable, as furnishing part of the desert, without which, after supper as well as dinner, few householders would be contented; the omission might be considered as a criterion of poverty, a condition which the weakness of human nature leads men generally to dissemble rather than avow. Ships also take considerable quantities of almonds and raisins as sea-stock; but few have hitherto been sent to India or to Europe as articles of trade. Before the capture the prices might have admitted of it, almonds being then not more than from a shilling to eighteenpence sterling the thousand, and raisins from twopence to threepence a pound; but the increased demand, in consequence of the increased number of

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shipping, as well as of inhabitants, raised the price of the former from two shillings to two shillings and sixpence the thousand, and of the latter from fourpence to sixpence a pound.

Walnuts and chesnuts are neither plentiful nor good; and the latter will barely keep a month without decaying, so that these are never likely to become articles of general consumption or of exportation.

But dried peaches, apricots, pears, and apples, are not only plentiful, but good of their kind. The peaches and pears are used in the desert, but apricots and apples are intended for tarts; the latter, indeed, are nearly as good as when fresh from the tree. All the others are squeezed together and dried whole, but the apples are sliced thin and dried in the sun, till they take the consistence and appearance of slips of leather, of that kind and color usually called the York tan. These, when soaked in water, swell out and make very excellent tarts; and are sold chiefly as an article of sea stock. The whole value of dried fruit, shipped in the year 1802, amounted only to 2542 rixdollars, as appears by the Custom-house books, on which every pound is entered, being subject to a duty on exportation of 5 per cent.

SALT PROVISIONS.

This is an article, as I have already taken occasion to observe, that is susceptible of great improvement; not, however, to be prepared in Cape Town, after the cattle have

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been harassed and famished for two months in travelling over a barren desert, but cured at Algoa Bay, and brought down in small coasting vessels to the Cape. Salted mutton, and mutton hams, might, however, be, and are indeed to a certain degree, prepared at the Cape, but not to that extent of which they are capable.

It is remarkable that the Dutch, being so fond of fat, should not pay more attention to increase the breed of hogs. Except a few, that are shamefully suffered to wallow about the shores of Table Bay, where, indeed, they are so far useful as to pick up dead fish and butchers' offals, that are scattered along the strand, the hog is an animal that is scarcely known as food in the colony. Yet, from the vast quantities of fruit, the productive crops of barley, of peas, beans, and other vegetables, they might be reared at a small expence; whereas, from the manner in which they are at present fed in Cape Town, no one thinks of eating pork.

Salt, in the greatest abundance, is spontaneously produced within a few miles of Cape Town, by the evaporation of the water in the salt lakes that abound along the west coast of the colony. Two kinds of fish, the *Hottentot* and the *Snook*, are split open, salted, and dried in the sun in large quantities, principally for the use of the slaves who are employed in agriculture, to correct the bilious effects of bullocks' livers and other offals that constitute a great part of their food. They are eaten also by the inhabitants of the town, when boisterous weather prevents the fishing-boats from going out; for a Dutchman seldom makes a meal without fish. Small

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quantities are sometimes taken as sea-stock, but so inconsiderable as hardly to deserve mentioning.

Salt butter is a very material article both for the consumption of the town, the garrison, and the navy, as also for exportation. The quality greatly depends on the degree of cleanliness that has been employed in the dairy, and more particularly on the pains that have been taken in working the butter well, to free it from the milky particles, which, if suffered to remain, very soon communicate a strong rancid taste that is highly offensive. That which comes from the Snowy Mountains is accounted the best; but, to say the truth, very little deserves the appellation of good. Under the Dutch Government it was usually sold at from fourpence to sixpence a pound, but, of late years, it was seldom to be purchased under a shilling a pound.

SOAP AND CANDLES.

The first of these articles is manufactured by almost every farmer in the country, and, in some of the districts, furnishes a considerable part of their surplus revenue, which is appropriated to the purchase of clothing and other necessaries at their annual visit to Cape Town. The unctuous part is chiefly derived from the fat of sheeps' tails, and the potash or barilla is the lixiviated ashes procured from a species of *Salsola* or salt wort that grows abundantly on those parts of the *Karroo*, or deserts, that are intersected by periodical streams of water. The plant is known in the colony by the Hottentot name of *Canna*. With this alkaline lye and the fat

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of sheep, boiled together over a slow fire for four or five days, they make a very excellent soap, which generally bears the same price as salt butter. Being mostly brought from the distant district of Graaf Reynet at the same time with the butter, they rose and fell together according to the quantity in the market, and the demand there might happen to be for them. The great distance from the market limited the quantity that was manufactured, and not the scantiness of the materials.

This distance is a serious inconvenience to the farmer, and a great encouragement to his natural propensity to idleness. If he can contrive to get together a waggon load or two of butter or soap, to carry with him to Cape Town once a year, or once in two years, in exchange for clothing, brandy, coffee, a little tea and sugar, and a few other luxuries, which his own district has not yet produced, he is perfectly satisfied. The consideration of profit is out of the question. A man who goes to Cape Town with a single waggon from the Sneuwberg must consume, at least, sixty days out and home. He must have a double team, or 24 oxen, and two people, at the least, besides himself, to look after, to drive, and to lead the oxen and the sheep or goats, which it is necessary to take with them for their subsistence on the journey. His load, if a great one, may consist of fifteen hundred weight of butter and soap, for which he is glad to get from the retail dealers at the Cape, whom he calls *Smaus* or Jews, sixpence a pound, or just half what they sell the article for again. So that the value of his whole load is not above 37*l.* 10*s.* But as he has no other way of proceeding to the Cape, except with his

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waggon, it makes little difference in point of time whether it be laden or empty. And the more of these loose articles he can bring to market, the fewer cattle he has occasion to dispose of to the butcher. These constitute his wealth, and with these he portions off his children.

Candles being an unsafe article to transport by land carriage are seldom brought out of the country; but a vegetable wax, collected from the berries of a shrubby plant, the *myrica cerifera*, plentiful on the dry marshy grounds near the sea-shore, is sometimes sent up to the Cape in large green cakes, where it may be had at from a shilling to fifteenpence a pound. The tallow to be purchased at the Cape is barely sufficient for the consumption of the town and the garrison, and the candles made from it are seldom lower than fifteenpence a pound.

ALOES.

This drug is extracted from the common species of aloe known by the specific name of *perfoliata*, and is that variety which, perhaps on account of the abundant quantity of juice it contains, botanists have distinguished by the name of *succotrina*, though vulgarly supposed to have taken the name from the island of Socotra, where this drug is said to be produced of the best quality, in which case, at all events, it ought to be *socotrina*.

Large tracts of ground, many miles in extent, are covered with spontaneous plantations of this kind of aloe, and espe-

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cially in the district of Zwellendam, at no great distance from Mossel Bay. In this part of the country the farmers rear few cattle or sheep, their stock consisting chiefly of horses; and they formerly cultivated a certain quantity of corn, which they delivered at a small fixed price, for the use of the Dutch East India Company, at Mossel Bay; but since this practice has been discontinued, they find it more advantageous to bring to Cape Town a load of aloes than a load of corn; the former being worth from 18*l.* to 20*l.*, the latter only from 8*l.* to 10*l.* The labor employed in collecting and inspissating the juice is ill repaid by the price it bears in Cape Town, which is seldom more than threepence a pound; but it is usually performed at a time of the year when the slaves have little else to do; and the whole strength of the family, slaves, Hottentots, and children, are employed in picking off, and carrying together, the leaves of the aloes. Three or four pounds, I understand, are as much as each person can collect and prepare in a day.

This drug, it seems, has of late years been much employed in the porter breweries of London, which occasioned an increased demand, and which may one day be extended almost to an indefinite amount, if the partial experiments of the ingenious Sigr. Fabroni on the juice of this plant can be realized on the great scale; experiments that promise a no less valuable acquisition to the arts than a coloring substance which may be used, with advantage, as a substitute for cochineal. The quantity of inspissated juice brought to the Cape market was eagerly bought up by the English merchants, and

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sent to London as a remittance. The amount of this article entered on the Custom-house books, in the course of four years, was as follows:

	Years.	Lbs. Weight.	Value R. D.
	1799	126,684	9361 1
	1800	71,843	5217 0
	1801	52,181	4258 3
	1802	91,219	6829 0
Total of 4 years		lbs. 341,927	R.D. 25,665 4

It is subject to a small exportation duty of sixteen-pence for every hundred pounds.

IVORY.

However abundant this article might once have been in the southern part of Africa, it is now become very scarce, and, in the nature of things, as population is extended, the animals that furnish it, the Elephant and the Hippopotamus, must progressively disappear. Indeed, at this moment, except in the forests of Sitsikamma and the thickets in the neighbourhood of the Sunday River, not any elephants are to be found within the limits of the colony. Of those few which the Kaffers destroy, the large tusks are always cut up into circular rings and worn on the arms as trophies of the chace. The small quantity of ivory that is brought to the Cape market is collected chiefly by two or three families of *bastaard* Hottentots

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(as the colonists call them) who dwell to the northward, not far from the banks of the Orange River. The whole quantity exported, in the course of four years, as appears by the Custom-house books, amounted only to 5981 pounds, value 6340 rixdollars.

The Hippopotamus or sea-cow is now no longer within the limits of the colony; and, though the teeth of this animal are considered as the best ivory, yet the quantity of it procured was always comparatively small with that of the elephant. We may safely conclude then, that ivory is not to be reckoned among the valuable exports which the Cape can supply for the markets of Europe.

TOBACCO.

I mention this article not so much on account of the quantity exported, which, indeed, is very trifling, as of the great abundance the colony is capable of producing. It is impossible the plant can thrive better in any part of the world than in this climate, or require less attention; and I have understood from persons, qualified to give an opinion on the subject, that the Cape tobacco, with a little art in the preparation, is as good in every respect as that of Virginia. As all male persons, old and young, smoke in the Cape, from the highest to the lowest, and as American tobacco generally bears a high price, the consumption of that of native growth is considerable. The inferior sort is used by slaves and Hottentots.

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I have now enumerated the most material articles of export which the Cape either does, or easily might, furnish for foreign markets. There still remain a few trifling things, as preserved fruits, garden seeds, salt, vinegar, &c., which, though valuable as refreshments for ships calling there, are of no consequence as exports. The total value of every kind of colonial produce collectively, that has actually been exported from the ports of the Cape in four years, is as follows:

		Value.
In 1799	—	R.D. 108,160 0
1800	—	85,049 2
1801	—	50,519 6
1802	—	57,196 0
In four years		R.D. 300,925 0

or £.60,185 0 Currency.

The obvious conclusion to be drawn from the view now taken of the amount of exports in colonial produce is, that the Cape of Good Hope, in its present condition, is of very little importance to any nation, considered as to the articles of commerce it supplies for exportation to foreign markets. The surplus produce, beyond the supply of its own inhabitants, a garrison, and navy of eight or ten thousand men, and the refreshments furnished to ships trading and casually calling there, is so trifling as to merit no consideration. That by a new system of laws and regulations, particularly with regard to the loan farms, it is susceptible of great improvement, I

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have already shewn; and there can be little doubt that, with due encouragement, many of the important products above-mentioned might be greatly extended, and some of them, as wine, for instance, increased to an indefinite quantity.

The next point that comes under consideration is the advantages that may result to the British Empire, by the increased consumption of goods, the growth and produce of Great Britain and her colonies, from the acquisition of the Cape of Good Hope. The commodities imported from England into this settlement consisted in,

Woollen cloths, from the first sort down to woollen blankets.
Manchester goods of almost every description.
Hosiery, haberdashery, and millinery.
Boots, shoes, and hats.
Cutlery, iron tools, stationary.
Bar and hoop iron.
Smiths' coals.
Household furniture.
Paint and oils.
Earthenware.
Naval stores.
Tongues, hams, cheese, and pickles.

From India and China were imported,

Bengal, Madras, and Surat piece goods; the coarse ones for the slaves.
Tea, coffee, sugar, pepper, and spices.
Rice.

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In addition to these, the Americans were in the habit of bringing lumber-cargoes of deal plank, staves, balk, salt fish, pitch, turpentine, &c.; and the Danes, Swedes, and Hamburgh ships assorted cargoes of iron, plank, French wines, beer, gin, Seltzer water, coffee, preserves, pickles, &c. in exchange for refreshments, to defray the charges of repairs and other necessaries, or for hard money to carry to India or China.

As it is not material to state the exact amount of each kind of goods imported, I shall subjoin an abstract account of the whole importation into the Cape by British or foreign bottoms, from Europe, Asia, and America, in the course of four years, including the value of the prize goods brought in, and of the slaves imported within the same period.

Years.	British goods on British bottoms, duty free.	India goods on British bottoms, 5 per cent. duty.	European prize goods, 5 per cent. duty.	Indian prize goods 10 per cent. duty.	Prize slaves and others imported by British merchants.	Total produce imported in British bottoms.	European and American goods on foreign bottoms, 10 per cent. duty.	Indian goods on foreign bottoms, 10 per cent.	Total produce imported in foreign bottoms.
	Rd. sk.	*Rd. sk.*	*Rd. sk.*	*Rd. sk.*	*Rd*	*Rd. sk.*	*Rd. sk.*	*Rd. sk.*	*Rd. sk.*
1799	674,009 6	104,124 0	20,623 5	100,487 0	245,600	1,144,844 3	118,244 0	64,219 6	182,463 6
1800	474,706 0	212,446 0	17,797 0	45,335 0	184,000	934,284 0	51,258 0	109,490 0	160,748 0
1801	587,023 4	290,117 0	568,425 0	129,642 6	271,200	1,846,408 2	136,394 5	3,337 2	139,731 7
1802	532,366 4	455,397 4	93,788 2	130,720 6	198,205	1,410,478 0	142,684 6	15,892 7	58,577 5
In 4 years	2,268,105 6	1,062,084 4	700,633 7	406,185 4	899,005	5,336,014 5	448,581 3	192,939 7	641,521 2

Total importation, Rix dollars 5,977.535 7 Sk.

or £1,195,507 3 6 Currency.

It will naturally be demanded how or in what manner the colony has contrived to pay this apparent enormous balance

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of imports over the produce exported, especially when it is known that most of the European articles were sold at an advance of from 50 to 100 per cent. on the invoice prices, which, indeed, could not well be otherwise, considering the high premium on bills, and the small quantity of colonial produce to be had for remittances. The following rough statement will serve to explain this matter:

The army, independent of the clothing and stores, &c. sent from home, and money remitted by the officers, could not expend less, in European and Indian goods, and in colonial produce, than 180,000*l.* per annum, which in four years is - - £.	720,000	0	0
The navy expenditure might, perhaps, amount to half that sum - -	360,000	0	0
The re-exportation of India prize goods, and of European goods to the West India islands, the coast of Brazil, and Mozambique, in four years, about - -	170,000	0	0
Surplus colonial produce exported as above	60,185	0	0
Making in the whole £.	1,310,185	0	0
Value of the imports as above	1,195,507	3	6
Balance in favour of the colony and the merchants residing there - £.	114,677	16	6

Besides this balance, which may be considered as the joint profit of the colonists and English merchants on that part of

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colonial produce and imported goods, which have been disposed of, the shops and warehouses at the evacuation of the colony were so full, that it was calculated there were then European and Indian articles sufficient for three years' consumption, and the capital of slaves imported was augmented nearly to the amount of 180,000*l.*

It appears then, that five-sixths of the trade of the Cape of Good Hope has been occasioned by the consumption of the garrison and the navy. And, consequently, that unless a very considerable garrison be constantly stationed there, or some other channel be opened for the export of their produce, the colonists, by having increased their capitals in the days of prosperity, and especially of slaves, which is a consuming instead of a productive capital, will rapidly sink into a state of poverty much greater than that they were in at the capture of the colony. The present garrison consists only of about one third of the garrison and navy kept there by Great Britain; and they will, most assuredly, not consume one fifth of the quantity of colonial produce and imports; so that some new vent must be discovered for the remaining four-fifths, or the colony will be impoverished. What then must be the condition of this place if the garrison, small as it is, should be supported at the expence of the inhabitants? It must, obviously, very speedily consume itself, and the majority of the inhabitants will be reduced to the necessity of clothing themselves, as before the capture, with sheep-skins. It is obviously, therefore, the interest of the colonists that the Cape should remain in the hands of the English; the truth of which, indeed, they felt and loudly expressed, before the Dutch flag had been flying

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two months. A total stagnation to all trade immediately followed the surrender of the place. The merchant of the town was clogged with a heavy capital of foreign goods, for which there was no vent; and the farmer had little demands for his produce. Every one was desirous to sell, and, of course, there were no buyers. The limited amount, for which the Government was authorized to draw on the Asiatic Council of the Batavian Republic, had long been expended; and the arrears of pay and allowances, still due to the garrison, inflamed it to mutiny. The great depreciation of the paper currency held out no encouragement for the Government to try its credit by extending the capital already in circulation. All hard money had totally disappeared, except English copper penny pieces, of which I have already spoken, to the amount of about four thousand pounds, and even these were bought up by the Government and taken out of circulation, although their current value was two-pence. The addition of a French garrison, under such circumstances, would, in all probability, have hastened the destruction of the colony, in so far as regarded a supply of foreign articles in exchange for colonial produce. For, it is not to be supposed, after their treatment of the Dutch at home, they would be inclined to shew more consideration for their colonies.

As a dependency on the Crown of Great Britain, in the natural course of things it became a flourishing settlement; but neither the territorial nor the commercial advantages derivable to Britain, in consequence of the possession of it, are of such magnitude as, considered in these points of view only, to make the retention of it a *sine qua non* to a treaty of peace;

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not even when carried to the highest possible degree of which they are susceptible. If the importance of this settlement was confined to these objects, the possession of it would not be worth the concern of the British government.

It now remains to consider, in the last place, the important advantages that might result to England, by establishing at the Cape a kind of central depôt for the Southern Whale Fishery. It is an universally acknowledged truth that, with the promotion of navigation, are promoted the strength and security of the British empire; that the sea is one great source of its wealth and power; and that its very existence, as an independent nation, is owing to the preponderancy of its navy; yet, it would seem that the advantages offered by this element have hitherto been employed only in a very partial manner. Surrounded as we are on all sides by the sea, every square mile of which is, perhaps, not much less valuable than a square mile of land in its produce of food for the sustenance of man, how long have we allowed another nation to reap the benefit of this wealthy mine, and to support from it almost exclusively, a population which, in proportion to its territory, was double to that of our own; a nation which, by this very source of industry and wealth, was once enabled to dispute with us the sovereignty of the seas? A nation of fishermen necessarily implies a nation of seamen, a race of bold and hardy warriors. The navy of England has deservedly been long regarded as the great bulwark of the empire, whilst the most certain source of supplying that navy with the best seamen has been unaccountably neglected. Our colonies and our commerce have been hitherto considered as

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the great nursery of our seamen; but in times like the present, when civilized society is convulsed in every part of the world, our colonies may fail and our commerce may be checked. From what source, then, is our navy to be manned? The glorious feats that have been performed in our ships of war, from the first-rate down to the pinnace, were not by the exertions of men taken from the plough. Courage alone is not sufficient for the accomplishment of such actions; there must be activity, skill, and management, such as can be acquired only by constant habit from early youth. The cultivation of the fisheries would afford a never failing supply of men so instructed; would furnish the markets with a wholesome and nutritious food; and would increase our conveniencies, extend our manufactures, and promote our commerce.

For, independent of the important consideration of reducing the present high price of butchers' meat, by bringing a more ample supply of fish to the several markets of England, the fisheries are of great moment in another point of view: whale oil is now become so valuable an article of consumption in Great Britain, not only for the safety and conveniency it affords by lighting the streets of our cities and great towns at a moderate expence, but as a substitute for tallow and grease in various manufactures, that it may be considered as an indispensable commodity, whose demand is likely to increase in proportion as arts and manufactures are extended, and new applications of its use discovered. We ought, then, to consider both the home fishery for supplying the markets with food, and the whale fishery for furnishing

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our warehouses with oil, as two standing nurseries for the education of seamen.

One would scarcely infer, from the state of the fisheries at the present day, that our legislature has ever regarded them in this point of view. They have hitherto been carried on in very limited and partial manner, with encouragement just sufficient (and but barely so) for the supply of our own markets; when common policy should induce us to open foreign markets to take off the surplus of our depôts. Hence it happens, and especially in time of war, that oil so frequently experiences a fluctuation in its price, which, however favorable it may be to certain individuals who can command large capitals, to whom this limited policy confines the adventure, is discouraging to those who look only for a fair and reasonable, but certain, profit on their industry. If beyond the demands of the market, there was always a redundancy of oil on hand, the price would find its level, and the profits of the adventure be reduced more to a certainty; and, in such case, there is no reason for supposing to the contrary, that England might not supply a considerable part of the continent of Europe with whale oil. The advantage of extending the markets would be an increase of native fishermen without resorting to foreign aid.

For many years our fisheries of Greenland were carried on by means of masters, harpooners, and other officers from Holland or the Hans Towns; even for near a century after, the bounties allowed by Government held out a sufficient

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degree of encouragement to bring up our own seamen to the trade, who are now in skill inferior to none who frequent the Northern Seas. In like manner the Americans, settled at Nantucket, almost exclusively carried on the South Sea Fishery, before the American war; and after the peace, which ceded Nantucket to the United States, they continued to supply our southern adventurers, as the Dutch had done the Northern Fishery, with masters, harpooners, and other officers.

In one out-port of this kingdom, the obvious policy of establishing a nursery of southern fishermen has been successfully attempted. Seven families wishing to remain British subjects, and to derive the benefit of the English markets, had migrated to Nova Scotia, where they were discouraged from extending their colony, and were invited by the Right Honorable Charles Greville to settle at Milford in Milford Haven. They fitted out their ship and had a successful voyage, and the respectable family of Starbucks have extended the concern to four ships.

Parliament wisely continued the limited invitation of an individual to foreign fishermen to settle at Milford, and the accession of Mr. Rotch has increased the Milford Fishery to eight ships. And the very extensive connexion of that gentleman in America is likely to make the port of Milford important to the mutual benefit of commerce between Great Britain and America, for which its situation is so eminently suited. The Southern Whale Fishery, from this place, has not a less capital afloat at this time than 80,000*l.* nor has any whaling

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ship from the port of Milford the least concern whatsoever with any adventure except the fishing for whales.

It is singular enough that one of the noblest ports in England, whether it be considered in point of situation, commanding, at all times, a free and speedy communication with Ireland and the Western Ocean, and favorable for distribution of merchandize, or regarded as to the conveniencies it possesses as a port and harbour, should have been so wholly neglected by the British legislature, that when the families above mentioned first settled there, the place did not afford them a single house for their reception. At this moment, by the removal of artificial obstructions and the unremitting attention of Mr. Greville, there is a town, with suitable protections of batteries, and two volunteer companies; a dock-yard in which three King's ships are now building, a quay, and establishments of the different tradesmen and artificers, which a sea-port necessarily requires. Having proceeded thus far, there can be little doubt that, in the course of half a century, it may class among the first of the out-ports, and rise by means of the Southern Fishery, as Liverpool has done by the African Slave trade.

I mention this circumstance as a striking instance to shew the importance of the South Sea Fishery, and as a proof that, contrary to the generally received opinion, this fishery may be carried on by skill and management, without the adventitious aid of trading, so as fully to answer the purpose of those who are properly qualified to embark in the undertaking. For where men, by industry in their profession, rise from small

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beginnings into affluence, such profession may be followed with a greater certainty of success than many others which appear to hold out more seducing prospects. The American fishermen never set out with a capital, but invariably work themselves into one; and the South Sea Fishery from England may succeed on the same principle, as the above example clearly shews, under every disadvantage, when properly conducted.

It is difficult to point out the grounds of justice or policy in giving tonnage bounties to the Greenland Fishery, and only premiums to successful adventurers in the Southern Fishery. A voyage to Greenland is four months, the outfit of which is covered by the tonnage bounty, and, if wholly unsuccessful, the same ship can make a second voyage the same year to some of the ports of the Baltic. A voyage to the South Sea is from twelve to eighteen months, and must depend solely on the success in fishing. A Greenland ship sets out on a small capital, and builds on a quick return; but a South Sea whaler must expend a very considerable capital in making his outfit, for which he can reckon on no returns for at least eighteen months. Hence the usual practice of sending them out in the double capacity of fishers and contraband traders, in order that the losses they may sustain by ill success in fishing may be made good by smuggling.

If by extending the fishery we should be enabled to supply the continent of Europe, two objects should never be out of the view of the Legislature—the exemption from duty of all

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the produce of the fisheries, and particularly spermaceti, which, if manufactured into candles, and subject only to the same duty as tallow candles, would produce much more to the revenue than when taxed as it now is, as wax—and the extension of the premium system, which, by doubling its present amount, would probably be adequate encouragement to supply the home market with spermaceti and black whale oil. I have heard it asserted that the bonding of foreign oil in Great Britain would throw the whole agency of American fishery on England with greater advantage to both countries than by any other system.

But when we consider that the home market is necessarily secured to British subjects by high duties on foreign oil, we should also consider that every means to lessen the charges of outfit should strengthen our adventure in this lucrative branch of trade. Among others that would seem to have this tendency are the facilities that might be afforded to the Southern Fishery by the happy position of the Cape of Good Hope. If at this station was established a kind of central depôt for the Southern Whale Fishery, it might, in time, be the means of throwing into our hands exclusively the supplying of Europe with spermaceti oil. To the protection of the fisheries on the east and west coasts of Southern Africa, the Cape is fully competent, and the fisheries on these coasts would be equally undisturbed in war as in peace. From hence they would, at all times, have an opportunity of acquiring a supply of refreshments for their crews, and of laying in a stock of salt provisions at one-fourth part of the expence of carrying them out from England.

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In the wide range which, of late years, they have been accustomed to take, from the east, round Cape Horn, to the west coast of America, partly for the sake of carrying on a contraband trade with the Spanish colonies, and partly for fishing, they are destitute, in time of war, of all protection. Hitherto they have suffered little inconvenience from this circumstance, because the Cape of Good Hope gave us the complete and undisturbed possession of the Southern Ocean; but is this the case in the present war, when the enemy is in possession of the bays and harbours of the Cape? Whilst, from Europe to the Indian Ocean, if we except the Portugueze islands and Rio de Janeiro, whose admission to us is extremely precarious, we have not a creek that will afford us a butt of water, a biscuit, or a bullock?

It is by no means necessary to resort to the coasts of South America to succeed in the Southern Whale Fishery. The whales on the east and west coasts of Africa are of the same kind, of as large a size, and as easily taken, as those on the shores of the opposite continent. The black whales, indeed, are caught with much greater ease, as they resort in innumerable quantities into all the bays on the coasts of South Africa, where there is no risk in encountering them, and less expence as well as more certainty in taking them, than in the open ocean. The spermaceti whale, whose oil is more valuable, and of which one half of the cargo at least should be composed, in order to meet the expences of a long voyage, is equally abundant on the coasts of Southern Africa as on those of America. No objection can therefore lie on the ground of taking the fish. Besides it is well known that whales, after

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being long disturbed on one station, entirely abandon it and seek for repose on a different coast. Our Southern whale fishers may probably therefore, in the course of a few years, be compelled to change their fishing ground from the coasts of South America to those of South Africa.

If policy requires the encouragement of all our fisheries by bounties, and that with a view of increasing the nursery of seamen to Great Britain and Ireland; it may, perhaps, be expedient to extend that encouragement to the inhabitants of the Cape of Good Hope, a measure which could not fail to bring together the South Sea fishers to its ports to complete their cargoes, giving, by their means, an increased energy and activity to the trade and industry of the settlement.

The situation, the security, and the conveniencies of the *Knysna*, are admirably adapted for carrying into execution a fishery on such a plan. Every material either is, or might be, produced upon the spot for equipping their ships. The land is here the very best that the colony affords, and it so happens, that the six months in which it might be dangerous to fish on this coast, are the suitable season for cultivating the land. Such small craft might also find their advantage in running down to the islands in the South Seas and picking up a cargo of seals, and thus anticipate the Americans, who, by means of their fishery and ginseng, and the produce of their lumber cargoes, have worked themselves, as we have already had occasion to notice, into a valuable portion of the China trade. Whereas if oil taken on the coast by the small

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craft of the inhabitants of the Cape, which might also include oil taken by foreign fishermen and exchanged by them for India or China goods, were admitted to entry in British bottoms into Great Britain at a low colonial duty, the foreign fishermen, who never can be excluded from fishing on the coasts of Africa, might find a market for their oil there. And the Americans would, probably, under such regulations, find it their advantage to supply themselves with Indian produce at the Cape, and extend their fishery only when they could not obtain a vent for their native produce of skins, drugs, and lumber. The situation of the Cape, properly stocked, might thus be an important depôt for British trade with America, and, perhaps, supersede expensive voyages to China in their small ships. This, however, is mere matter of opinion and not of fact. That the plan they now pursue does answer their expectations, may be inferred from the number of their ships, progressively increasing, which navigate the Indian Seas.

Some few of their ships resort to the bays within the limits of the Cape colony to take the black whale; but as those bays are accessible only at certain seasons of the year, it would be no difficult matter, if an exclusive fishery could be deemed politic, with a single frigate, to clear the coast of all fishers except our own. They sometimes, also, run into Saint Helena Bay to the northward, or into Algoa Bay to the eastward, to complete their cargoes, a privilege that policy would require to be allowed only with moderation even to our own ships; for, as I have just observed, constant fishing in any one place never fails to chase the fish entirely away.

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There can be little doubt, therefore, that the Cape of Good Hope might be rendered essentially useful to the Southern Whale Fishery, so important to the commerce and navigation of Great Britain; but that during the war, the same place in the possession of an enemy may be the means of obstructing this valuable branch of trade even on the opposite coast, and must, at all events, render it forced and precarious.

Having thus endeavoured to state the different points of view in which the Cape of Good Hope may be considered of importance to the British nation, from materials faithfully collected, and of unquestionable authenticity, the result of the whole will, I think, bear me out in this conclusion:—That as a naval and military station, connected with the protection and the defence of our trade and possessions in India, the advantages of the Cape are invaluable; that the policy, if practicable, of making it the seat of a free and unrestrained commerce is doubtful, even in the hands of England; that it holds out considerable facilities for the encouragement and extension of the Southern Whale Fishery; but that, as a mere territorial possession, it is not, in its present state, and probably never could become by any regulations, a colony worthy of the consideration either of Great Britain or any other power.

FINIS.

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